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Editor - in - Chief
VLADIMIR KEMENOV

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Street fighting in Breslau.

ALONG THE ROAD TO BERLIN

By Boris Gorbatov.

HERE it is! Here it is at last—the road to Berlin. A poster at one of the crossroads shows a husky, jolly Red Armyman in a new pair of boots that he is patting affectionately. The poster bears the caption "We'll get to Berlin all right!"

And we shall get there. It is not far now. Actually, wherever and whenever our men were fighting during these years, the direction of their main drive was always Berlin. This road lay through Mozhaisk, Stalingrad and Rostov. Only back in those days, Berlin was

a matter of thousands of kilometres, whereas now it can be reckoned by the dozens. But then as now, we were sure, very sure, that we would get to Berlin.

This road to Berlin has been a long and terrible one. Woe to the Germans who have made it such! It led us through the tortured fields of Byelorussia and the waste and wreckage of the Ukraine. It led us past the ruins of Smolensk, and the wrecked factories of the South and the coal mines of the Donbas choked with our own dead. When they saw these things our men said, "We'll make

the Germans pay for all this when we get to Berlin."

At that time we still had fifteen hundred kilometres to go before reaching Berlin.

In Brest a soldier from Stalingrad who has been in the war from the very beginning and who wears a goodly number of medals, said:

"Maybe it will be harder going when we get on foreign soil but it seems to me that I'll certainly feel a lot easier. Other people's tears don't make your eyes smart."

When we reached our own frontiers we went on to liberate other people's land. In Poland we saw Majdanek. It turned out that Russians take other people's grief as much to heart as their own and other people's tears do make their eyes smart. Polish orphans, the violated Polish land, the sufferings of the Polish people call as loudly for vengeance as the wrongs they themselves have endured. So to the burden we already bore was added another — the sorrow of ravaged Poland. To our own accounts which we had to square with Germany were now added those of the countries we were liberating.

We reached the Vistula. Only five hundred kilometres now separated us from Berlin.

Beyond the Vistula lay flaming Warsaw. Polish patriots made their way across the sullen, swollen river to our lines. They brought terrible tidings of what was going on in the city. Prepared as we were for the worst, we could not help shuddering when we finally entered Warsaw.

Here the Germans not only destroyed all monuments, blew up all churches and set fire to factories, museums and houses, but they simply wiped out whole streets and tore up whole blocks. It was with the greatest difficulty that we waded through this sea of rubble and splinters, through this chaos of scorched bricks and shattered concrete, through the stone jungles of the Polish capital.

Our offensive was a very swift one. We passed through some cities that were completely wrecked and others that were still intact. From five hundred kilometres the distance to Berlin was cut to four hundred and fifty, then to four hundred and finally to three hundred and fifty.

This was probably the first time in the whole course of the war that our soldiers

had ever seen a German who was dressed in an ordinary topcoat and hat.

Well, thought our men, were they to kill these Germans as the Germans had killed our people? Were they to give free rein to their justifiable wrath, were they to unburden their souls of accumulated bitterness and have it out with the Germans at last, man to man?

"No", was the decisive answer of our soldiers. "Let our courts try them. It is not our business to kill unarmed people."

Yes, the Soviet man has a great heart, a heart that will never become bestial. We shall not kill unarmed people. We are no Germans, we are not beasts. We shall bring them before a severe and a just judge. Not a single one of them shall escape the punishment he deserves.

The Germans did not expect vengeance to overtake them. They had no suspicion that it was rushing toward them at such a swift pace. They were told that no danger whatever threatened them. They thought their organizational efficiency would protect them. Who would have thought it possible to cover the four hundred kilometres from the Vistula to Landsberg - in two weeks? But our troops outdid the Germans. The entire offensive of Marshal Zhukov's troops could be termed a miracle of efficiency. The Germans maintain that our offensive is the movement of a raging elemental force. But the movement of this "elemental force" was prepared and planned by the persistent and bold minds of our generals. They command it. They are leading it through the cities and villages of Germany and across any barrier that stands in the way. There is no longer any force which can stem its onslaught.

We were among the troops at the river crossings and on the roads over which supplies were brought up to the forward lines. Everywhere we saw the perfect order of a vast army machine working with marvelous precision. Along the road moved thousands of trucks, and long wagon trains supplying rear services of all kinds. This gigantic metal armada bore the brunt of the offensive. Everywhere one felt that some invisible and powerful hand was directing this surging stream along a road that unerringly led to the desired destination.

This is something that only supreme efficiency can achieve,



One of the main streets of Koeslin, Pomerania, taken by Soviet troops.

We met General Katukov's tank troops. Through the whole length of this long and difficult road they were supplied with everything they needed. They had never once run short of ammunition or shells or fuel, to say nothing of food. They looked like people waiting to go into attack. And this, despite the fact that they had not slept for days and had been fighting all the way to the German frontier. First Lieutenant Serge Vorobiev remarked to us, "If only the tanks don't get tired, we won't!"

In order to supply the army with everything it needs for such a gigantic offensive, everything must be foreseen and foreplanned. All this requires perfect efficiency and organization.

Fifty-five kilometres to Berlin. Germany-Brandenburg province.

2.

We are in Brandenburg province. Our offensive is gaining ground, spreading over Brandenburg like a sea of vast dimensions... A smoking field-kitchen pulled up at the crossroads in Schwerin. The driver stopped his horse and looked with joy and amazement at the high gabled houses with their tiled roofs.

"What's the capital of this province?" he asked the girl who was directing traffic at the crossroads.

"Berlin", she said.

This drew a laugh from everybody.

"O-ho", the driver remarked with obvious satisfaction. He flicked his whip and the kitchen set off at a brisk pace on the road to Berlin.

It is hard to write these days. And it is absolutely impossible to remain indifferent, cool, even calm. Everybody is excited and spirits run high. Everything that has been accumulating, seething and boiling in our hearts these four years is like a lump in our throats now... These are days of extremely high tension.

"Fantastique" was the admiring tribute paid to the Red Army offensive by a Parisian whom our troops released from German slavery.



Russian signposts in a German city pointing the road to Berlin.

And at times everything happening here does seem fantastic and legendary.

The Germans abandoned everything along the road of our offensive from the Vistula to the Oder. They had no time to take their plunder with them. Supply centres had been set up in good time throughout Brandenburg province as part of Germany's war preparations. There were huge factories and plants, thousands of tons of sugar, underground munitions dumps, trainloads of flour, tens of thousands of pairs of boots, stores of meat and steel, automobiles and wine, cloth and leather. These bases in such cities as Schwerin and Landsberg, Sonnenberg and Reppen, were far from the front and near Berlin. It seemed as though their location was safe enough.

But all this has now fallen into our hands. There were some farseeing Germans, of course, who prepared for all possible contingencies. As one of them said, they made ready for a trip "to nowhere". They fitted out huge

covered carts, sheathed them in iron and even rigged up special "evac-trunks" (a term much in vogue in Germany today). They loaded these carts with bread and meat but all their efforts were for naught. The only ones who now make use of these elaborate conveyances are our supply trains. Thousands of fat cows that have not been milked for days roam through these German villages with such an unearthly bellowing that our rear units are forced to take a hand and bring relief to the suffering creatures. Strong, well-fed horses gallop at will across the fields. The roads are filled with German refugee families, caught before they could get away. Hundreds of trains loaded with trucks and guns are lined up at the railway stations. Their freight is of no use to the dead now. There are also trains filled with medical supplies, but the Germans for whom they were intended also no longer need them. They were trapped on Polish territory. There are cars loaded with rolls of film but what is there for the Germans to photograph now but their own disgrace? There are cars filled with wine, leather, furlined coats but not one of them will ever reach its destination! There are cars filled with furniture, baby carriages, pillows, and blankets which the Germans were still sending out of Poland. Where to? What for?

3.

In old schoolbooks we used to read that Germany was a country of idvllically peaceful. checkered landscapes. But we found no idvll here. We saw no friendly towns nor touchingly tranquil villages. We did not even see that natural beauty of landscape to be found in every country. But we did see the true German landscape that has grown so familiar in these years—the cursed panorama of the war-jails enclosed by barbed wire, barracks that reminded us of Majdanek, prison camps, lookout towers for camp guards, striped sentry boxes, bricks and stone. And the inevitable granite eagles gazed down at us from the monuments while iron eagles clutched grille fences. Signs of "Verboten" hung at every crossroad. And everywhere—on all the doors, walls and fences were warnings and threats — "Shsh! Quiet! Be Careful!"

We do not know what Germany was like before Hitler came to power. Now it lay spread out before us like a vast and dismal prison with rusty doors from which the locks have at last been shattered. This is what Germany is like today — a gigantic slave market. We saw this with our own eyes.

Our troops forced open the iron doors of this gigantic prison. The army of liberation burst into the beast's lair. This army, inspired by the knowledge of its great mission, is shattering the German fetters and prying apart the bars in the prison camps and jails. The army of liberation is restoring freedom and life to the European peoples enslaved by the Germans.

The most indifferent person cannot help being stirred by what is happening on the roads of Germany today. At last the moment has come! There are no more jailers. There are no more jails. Yesterday's prisoners, yesterday's captives and slaves throng the roads leading eastward. Eastward! American and English prisoners of war. Poles, Yugoslavs, Italians and Bulgarians from concentration camps. Young girls from Volhynia. A Hindu from Bombay and another from Calcutta, both in English uniforms. Czechs, Dutchmen. Russian girls from Smolensk. A young fellow from the Donbas. A mulatto whom the Germans took prisoner in French Marocco. French soldiers of the 1940 army and French civilians. This babel of languages and tribes, this sea of tormented humanity is surging eastward.

These liberated people have not the patience to wait for means of transportation. They do not want to spend even one more day in camps or prisons on this cursed German soil. Now that they have been freed, they want to leave as quickly as possible. Eastward! Eastward! To the country that has liberated them and from there — home, to their own country and their own families.

The roads are full of these people, some on foot, some on bicycles. Whole groups made up of people of many different nationalities travel together in any sort of available conveyance. There are covered wagons, oldfashioned carriages, phaetons, ancient wedding coaches. We even met two jovial French soldiers making the journey in a hearse. The vehicle had probably never had two such jolly passengers.

Everything that could possibly serve as a means of transport was on the move along the roads. Everything was put to use — creaking buggies and baby carriages — as long as it sped their progress eastward!

Red Armymen passing a group of girls on the road look for familiar faces among them.



Silence! (German poster).

"Hey, there! Anybody from Zaporozhye?" they shout.

Very often, so often that it has become a matter of course now, our soldiers find relatives, acquaintances and fellow townsmen among the crowds. While we were with the brigade commanded by Boiko, a Two Star Hero of the Soviet Union, one of the tankists—Andrei Nedosvity—found his sister Olga among the people passing us on the road. She had much to tell and the tankists listened eagerly to her description of life in German captivity. How fiercely these men will fight now, after listening to a simple story like hers!

When a long column of Russian children who had been freed from German slavery passed through the town square in Schwerin, our men and officers—majors, colonels and even generals—stood watching them from the sidewalks. They stood watching for hours, without saying a word. How intently they

gazed into the weary, pale faces of those children, perhaps looking for their own...

And the lines of children kept coming and coming... They were going home... Eastward!

It was also in Schwerin that we came across a "local boy". He could hardly have been more than four years old. He was riding around the square in front of the town hall on a tricycle, blithely unconcerned with what was happening about him. Buildings were still smoking, soldiers were marching through the square and tanks were rumbling by.

"Hey, you Heinie!" a passing soldier shouted

at him.

The boy looked around.

"I'm not a German", he answered in Russian, his feelings obviously hurt at being called a Heinie.

"What are you then?"

"I'm a Russian."

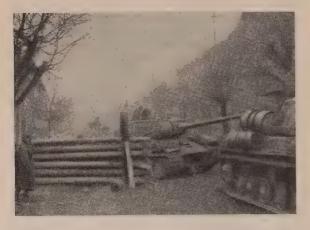
"But how did you ever get here?"

"Mummy says that we come from Pskov",

the youngster answered proudly.

We found out that he was only four years old and that three and a half years of his life had been spent in Germany. The first word he ever spoke, a Russian word, was probably spoken in Germany. He learned to talk here in Germany but the language he learned was Russian. He knows that he is a Russian and that he comes from Pskov and he is proud of it. His name is Borya and now many of our men and officers in Schwerin have become friendly with him.

Our soldiers gave him the tricycle he was riding so blithely through the streets of this city where only yesterday he and his mother



Barricades in the street of a German town to keep out Soviet tanks,

were slaves. They had been forbidden to walk on the streets and had lived in a prison camp. The German boys used to throw stones at him but he knew that he must not cry.

Now he is carefree and lighthearted as a child should be — after all he is only four years old, riding around on his tricycle amidst burning houses and rumbling tanks. He is a Russian, not a slave but a victor.

4.

It may sound paradoxical but it is a fact that the German policy of man-hatred and racial distinctions, directed toward the extermination of all non-German people not only failed to crush, but on the contrary heightened the feeling of national pride and national dignity in those peoples whom they imprisoned in their camps and whom they branded as people of "inferior races".

Even in imprisonment and slavery these "inferior races" shunned any contact with members of the "superior race". The Poles refused to become German citizens after their country was made part of the German Reich. Russians dared to sing Soviet songs in their prison camps and organized underground resistance.

There is not a single liberated person in the cities, towns, or along the roads of Germany today who is not wearing some national insignia. These liberated people proudly proclaim their nationality. They do not want to be taken for Germans in this New Babylon — which is what Hitler Germany has become.

Huge national flags wave over buildings housing people who only yesterday were slaves. Every window proudly displays its own flag. There are flags flying over the carts and wagons on the roads. There are flags on bicycles and covered wagons, on shaft-poles and tied to horses' manes. One American soldier sewed the stars and stripes to his coat. A Dutchman wore his national colours on his sleeve. The few Jews who miraculously managed to survive wore the markers with which the Germans branded them — the brand of martyrdom. And such is the bitter irony of fate that the Germans now envy them!

In Landsberg we happened to go into a house over which the flags of almost all the countries of Europe were waving. A notice in Russian on the gate bore the information that Yugoslav, Swiss, Czech, and French actors lived in this house.

It turned out that they were all circus performers. What a queer conglomeration they were and how characteristic of the whole situation! Even in the "world of art" everything had been arranged according to the German system — the Slavs were billeted in the garret where they slept in bunks built in triple tiers. The Germans and the neutral Swiss occupied separate apartments. Incidentally, the Germans had now moved into the circus wagons of their own accord.

5.

The Swiss greeted us in a manner befitting "neutrals". Taking us for representatives of the authorities, they immediately presented their permits, issued a year ago and written in... Russian! How farsighted that Swiss consul was!

The French performers did not show us their passports. Instead, a bottle of Bordeaux was set on the table and joyous toasts were drunk to Free France and to the Soviet Union. That house in Landsberg somehow reminded us of Noah's Ark. In the midst of the flood raging all around, it sailed on with its caged African lion and its Indian elephant, with its hyenas and its ponies, and with the flags of practically every country in Europe flying from its masts.

There is only one nationality in vanquished Germany that refrains from raising its flag—the Germans themselves. These "people of a superior race" are anxious that everyone forget they are Germans. They thrust white rags and towels out of their windows as a sign of surrender. They wear white armbands as a sign of submission and an entreaty for mercy. No one has enjoined them to do this—they do it of their own accord. The only national flag that Germany has today is that of surrender. And it will remain such until the German people, cleansed of the Hitler poison, will be worthy to enter the family of nations.

Today the Germans gaze stolidly at the endless stream of liberated people moving along the streets and roads past their houses.

The slaves of yesterday are the masters of today. Russian and Polish youths have already armed themselves with guns and are standing guard over warehouses and stores. Everywhere you hear the Slavic, French, Italian and English languages. People speak freely, loudly and proudly. Some Dutchmen pass, then comes a tall youth with side whiskers who, for

some reason or other, is wearing a silk hat. They are followed by a group of middle-aged people carrying brief cases and knapsacks. With them is a Jewish family — husband, wife and child — whom they have saved. Some English soldiers, slightly tipsy, go by singing their soldier songs. American paratroopers drive by on bicycles. And so they go—Czechs, Italians, Belgians...

One wants to stop every single one of these people, to question them and talk with them. In these stormy years people's lives do not follow ordinary channels. There is almost sure to be a tragedy in each biography. What a pity that the language barrier prevents us from having a heart to heart talk with them.

There was one chap among the American soldiers who offered to try his Russian on us. It turned out however that the language he called Russian was not Russian at all but some fantastic variety of broken Ukrainian. However, he managed to tell us that his father had come from the Ukraine, that he himself was born in California, that he had a girl waiting for him in Los Angeles, and that his name was Michael Kohut.

The two of us laughed over our attempts to understand each other and kept slapping each other on the back. What strange freak of fortune, what bitter sorrow, what fantastic rovings had brought this conglomeration of nationalities and tongues to the crossroads near Friedberg? That mathematician from Paris in the tortoise-shell glasses and soldier's puttees. That Senegalese from the French colonial troops. That girl from quiet, dreamy Volhynia? That Dutchman in the high hat?



After street fighting in a German town.

7.

What a pity that there is no time and no common language in which to talk one's fill with these people.

But there is one Russian word which everybody knows — American, Hindu, Senegalese. This word is heard on all sides. A simple old Russian word:

"Spasibo!"

"Spasibo!" the liberated slaves and prisoners shout at our soldiers, "Spasibo for freedom!"

Will these people ever forget who was the cause of all their grief and suffering? Will they ever forgive the Germans?

And will they ever forget who it was who liberated them from imprisonment and slavery, who it was who gave them back liberty and life and the chance to go home?

We were at one of the assembly points for Soviet citizens. There we had the opportunity to talk to hundreds of people.

Here are some young boys. They were fifteen or sixteen when the Germans took them away from their native land. Now they are eighteen and nineteen. Their faces are unshaven and there is a bitter, longing look in their

What do they want now? Rest? Quiet? To

go back home?

"We want to fight!" is their answer in a single voice. "We want to make the Germans

pay for what they've done!"

Here are some war prisoners. Most of them were captured in the hard fighting of 1941/42. The fellow with a scar on his forehead and tatoo marks on his chest was taken prisoner after being wounded. When he regained consciousness he was already behind the barbed wire fence of a prison camp. That Armenian, no longer very young, was captured during the fighting at Kerch. That one at Barvenkovo. That one at Smolensk.

Terrible years of imprisonment. Hunger.

Beatings. Humiliation. Death.

What do they want now? Quiet? Rest? To go back home?

"We want to fight!" they shout. "We want to take revenge on the Germans."

They have forgotten nothing, nor have they forgiven the Germans.

It is spring in Germany now. A warm wind is blowing.

The wind of victory.

We should like the reader to picture to himself this large German city of Landsberg. Its straight streets leading down to the Warta River. Its houses with high iron fences around them. Its stolid massive hotels and banks. Germans in hats and derbies, old and young, with umbrellas and the invariable white band on their sleeves. Whenever they meet a Soviet officer or soldier they step to one side, make a deep bow and stand for a minute or two with bent back as though waiting for a blow.

O, these rogues, these slave traders, these jackals disguised as respectable burghers, these salesmen selling flour ground from human bones-they all know that our troops have come to them to exact retribution. Each time they see one of us, they bend in expectation of a blow. When you enter a German home the occupants endeavour to anticipate your every wish. On the street they step aside to make way for you.

What is happening to the ordinary, "peace-

able" German civilians today?

As long as the war was confined to Polish territory beyond the Vistula, they still believed that Goebbel's "Walls" and Himmler's "German spirit" would stop the Russians. The war was somewhere far away. If one did not think about the war, one could go on living as always. "Shsh" and "Keep Quiet" were the bywords everywhere.

Then, very suddenly - within the space of two weeks — the war leaped from the Vistula to the Oder. Our tanks broke into Friedberg so unexpectedly that the Berlin power station, unaware of what had happened, continued supplying the city with current for two days after our troops had taken the city.

The war had reached German soil at last. It arrived in all its splendid fury and today even the most obtuse German in Brandenburg province realizes, sees and feels that the hour of "kaput" has arrived.

Only the big shots managed to get away. They fled the scene in their "Oppels" and "Mercedes", abandoning apartments, clothes, safes, documents and memoirs. The rank and file German, however, had no means of escape. Countless civilians remained behind — storekeepers and pharmacists, officers' wives evacuated from Berlin to "quiet" Brandenburg cities to escape the horrors of bombing. salesmen and undertakers, petty clerks and

overripe "Aryan" maidens, beer-hall politicians

and profiteers.

These people could only hide in cellars and wait for the worst to pass over. While our tanks rumbled down their streets and the raging flames of war consumed their cities they sat in their cellars and shivered. There was nothing to hope for now.

The Russian people who remained on the territory temporarily occupied by the Germans had firm faith that the Red Army would return and liberate them. This faith instilled their proud, unvanquished spirits with even

greater strength.

But the Germans in Brandenburg province are well aware that their army will never come to their rescue. The military might of

Germany is gone and gone for good.

Kaput. Kaput. These "ordinary" Germans no longer think of the destiny of either a great or a small Germany. They think only of themselves — of their property and their own skin. They know that retribution awaits them. And they know why. What they do not know is what form this retribution is to take.

"What are you going to do with us?" was the anxious question put to us by a German in whose house we stopped for the night.

We simply smiled.

"We shall treat you exactly the same as your soldiers treated our civilian population."

The German went pale when he heard our answer. In his fright he stretched out his hands toward us:

"No, no! You cannot treat us like that! You are Soviet people, you are not allowed to do things like that. I know you aren't... You have entirely different laws. I've read about them..."

These contemptible curs know that we are not the sort of people they are. They try to appeal to our Soviet conscience. They implore us to show them mercy. They want us to forget the gas-wagons, Babi Yar, Majdanek.

We shall not forget. But we shall not kill without cause. We shall bring them to trial.

8

You can sit in a cellar for a day, for two or even three days. But you cannot stay there forever. So the time came when the Germans crawled out of their hiding places.

And there were many of them.

There is a long line of Germans in front of the commandant's office. They stand there,



French war prisoners released by Soviet troops.

leaning on canes, wearing shabby hats and coats so that our authorities will think they are poor. They have come to find out what they can and cannot do. Can they carry on their business? Must they register for work? Where? Can they put out the fires in the city? Are they allowed to cross over to the other bank of the Warta? Up until the last few days they knew just what they had to do — wait for parcels from their Fritzes, beat and torment their slaves, kill the Jews, and believe that Hitler was a great general. They were the bolts and screws neatly serving the Hitlerite mechanism.

Now this mechanism has broken down and everything has come to a stop. So the Germans have collected at our commandant's office. They huddle against the wall of the building, trying to take up as little space as possible. If they could only squeeze into the stone walls they would do so without a moment's hesitation. Anything to escape notice, to elude attention.

Is this outward submission to be trusted? When they think that no one is looking at them, a spiteful gleam comes into their eyes. These are beasts of prey, driven into a cage. Their fangs have been extracted but their rapacity remains. They are still capable of doing harm. Their spirit is broken and they are frightened but they have not been rendered harmless. Vigilance and again vigilance!

One of them stands apart from the rest. He has a broad, red face, tightly set lips and a slight hump on his back. He has been standing in line all day asking everybody.

"Do they let people out of there?"



Is she to be held responsible? Frau Margarita Heinze. Of her three sons, Gustav was one of the executioners at the infamous camp at Majdanek; August took part in the massacre of innocent citizens of Kharkov;

Frantz assisted in the hanging of Zoyu Kosmodemyanskaya.

He was the owner of a typewriter shop and for the last few years was connected with the "Wanderer" Firm. He had been in Holland and France where he bought up trophy typewriters of all makes for a trifling sum. The war made him a rich man. He had his own safe deposit box in the Reichsbank. In his shop there were all kinds of typewriters — French, Dutch, Polish, Belgian... He joined the Nazi Party in 1939. It was his ambition to obtain exclusive rights for buying up stolen typewriters.

Now, however, this is all very far from his mind. He is one of the many waiting in line at the commandant's office. Twice he goes as far as the door and both times turns back. It is obvious that he cannot make up his mind to go in. He queues up again, leaning his heavy body on his cane. Finally he adjusts the white band on his sleeve and quickly enters the office. There he insists that he became a Nazi only under compulsion. As he makes it out, he is absolutely innocent of any crime. He did not kill any children, or destroy any Russian cities. No, no, he never did that.

The young artillery major in the office cannot bear his insistence:

"Good God, and this is the 'superior race'!"

After building up a powerful army the Germans set out to conquer the world. They turned all the technical achievements of modern civilization against mankind. They introduced automatism into their army. Automatic guns replaced the old rifles and the German soldier himself became an automaton. This automaton fought, killed and burned. The gigantic war machine devoured everything in its path. The army had skilled generals trained in the schools of Moltke and Hindenburg, Ludendorf and Schliffen. The whole arsenal of century-old German traditions was pressed into service. Hitler vowed that there was no force capable of stopping the "Third Empire" for a thousand years to come ...

Hitler's war machine received its first blow at Moscow in the hard days of the autumn and winter of 1941. Ever since, day and night for three long and hard years, in cold and storm, in heat and rain, without rest or sleep, our army has been beating and exterminating the German army.

Now we have reached the very foundation of this diabolic machine which we have pulled apart piece by piece. Our army is now not only dealing heavy blows at Hitler's war machine but is also hammering at the whole governmental structure of Hitler Germany.

The Germans moved their war plants to Silesia and Brandenburg provinces to make them safe from the English and American bombers. They even transferred the "Fokke-Wulf" Aircraft Plant underground. It seemed to the Germans that their industry was as safe and snug as they could make it.

But we broke into this snuggery and all these plants have fallen into our hands.

In Landsberg we were at police headquarters of Brandenburg province. This building was a stone in the foundation supporting the German governmental apparatus. This was evident merely from the premises themselves. We found thirty rooms on the third floor, all of them looking harmless enough.

They were hidden behind a massive iron door. Over the door hung a sign "No Admittance." This was the holy of holies in the police department. It was here that they kept their card indexes. Three tiers of drawers along the walls were filled with cards. The ones in the upper tier were suspended from pulleys. Everything was mechanised. These cards bore the life history of everybody living



Herr Frani. Wealthy German landowner who cruelly exploited the numerous Byelorussians brought to work on his land.

in Brandenburg province. Strict watch was kept over every person from birth to death. Here, in these rooms on the third floor of the police department, every single fact of everyone's doing was known — who went where, who was at whose house, who said what. Even such trivial things as going to the theatre or the circus, buying a new coat or having a party at home were all entered on these cards.

The whole story of the Hitler regime may be read in these files. Its foundation and its inner core are revealed in these records. This was the citadel of the Nazi police force. Behind its thick doors was the whole German world. It probably never entered the minds of these Germans that Soviet officers would ever set foot in these secret chambers. But when the time came, the members of the police department were not too anxious to die. They much preferred to run away. They abandoned everything. They did not even bother to lock the door.

And here we are roaming through these rooms with the inevitable — "Shsh! Quiet!" signs at every step. We go through their files and study these cards.

10.

Towards evening we went back to the commandant's office. There was now a line of Nazi party members queued up at the entrance. The commandant of Landsberg had announced that all members of the National Socialist Party were to appear for registration. They came, with their white armbands and with their air of resignation and submission. The queue extended the hole length of the street and around the corner to the hotel "Unter der Krone".

Who are these people, these Germans?

The flabby-faced one in the rusty black coat and crumpled hat is Herr Schultz, proprietor of an alcohol distillery. He took possession of this distillery in 1939, appropriating it from its former owner, a Pole. He travelled through the Ukraine and grew rich on the war, steadily climbing higher and higher. He regarded the Nazi Party as a lucrative source of profit for himself — through it he could get his hands on the alcohol distilleries in Russia. He also supplied alcohol to chemical plants and to the army.

He is not content with a white armband. To make matters doubly sure he has fastened a white ribbon to his coat lapel. When his turn comes, he hastens to inform the authorities that there are still two thousand tons of alcohol at his plant — to whom is he to turn them over? He is anxious to buy his way out. If only he can! But the lieutenant at the desk pays no attention to him.

"Next", is the only answer he gets.

A young German in a derby hat and, strangely enough, rubber gloves, is the next to enter the office. The white smock under his coat is evidently worn to back up his statement that he is a doctor, or to be more exact, a professor of medicine. After joining the Nazi Party he became director of a blood transfusion laboratory. All he wants now is to live. Nothing more—only to live. But in his laboratory he used Poles and Russians for guinea pigs — all the doctor's experiments were performed on people. It was much simpler and more exact than using rabbits or dogs. He did not attempt to deny this fact. "Yes, that's true", he says, "but after all none of the Russians died." He throws his Nazi badge on the floor, insisting that his membership in the National-Socialist Party was purely accidental. He used to be a Social-Democrat. It is strange how they all recall their "democratic" pasts now.

One after another they enter the office — storekeepers who joined Hitler's party in 1933, property owners, judges and policemen. Fat and lean, with shaking hands and protruding Adam's apples that make them look like gobblers. Murderers in soft hats, starched collars and gold-framed spectacles. People who once feasted with Hitler at his gory banquets and now hypocritically denounce him, cringing and begging for mercy.

A crowd of German peasants stopped us as we were passing through a small German village on the road to the Oder. Stretching out their hands to us, they implored us to kill a German whom they named.

We were greatly surprised. We got out of the ear wondering if we had heard aright.

There was no mistake. The Germans were really asking us to kill one of their compatriots who ran about the village at night yelling "Heil Hitler!" and setting fire to houses.

"There he is, there he is!" the women shouted and cried. Not far off stood a German — an unkempt figure with disheveled grey hair straggling out from under a battered straw hat. As soon as he saw us he pulled himself together, stood erect — as only Germans can—instantaneously becoming a wooden automaton. Then, for some reason he began to undress very hurriedly. He kept muttering to himself, talking in disconnected phrases that made no sense whatever.

"Is he mad?" we asked the villagers.

"Oh yes, quite mad", they answered. "And he is violent. He will set fire to the whole village and we shall have to answer for it. Please kill him, please do!"

We could not help laughing. This is what the Germans had come to, asking us to kill their "violently insane." But why had they not thought of the most dangerous maniac of them all—of Hitler, who dreamed of reducing the whole world to ruins and ashes? Why had they not put him into a strait jacket? Why did they not killed him?

Now these same "civilian Germans" are disclaiming him. They have no desire to be held responsible for what has been done. "We didn't do it!" they shout. "He did it!"

Well, so what? Each will get his due. The bloody maniac Hitler will get his length of rope, Goebbels his and Himmler his.

But the just tribunal of the people will call to account all those who brought Hitler's band to power and all those who were his support and his strength — all these ordinary German "civilians"—slaveowners, parasites, dealers in blood...

The hour of judgement has come.

THE CRIMES OF NAZI DOCTORS

By Col. E. Goldovsky and Lt. Col. K. Platonov of the Red Army Medical Service

BRAWALDE-MESERITS was the first psychiatric institution we met at the approaches to Berlin. In inspecting its various wings we found a comfortably furnished reception room, a luxurious office for its director, a series of office rooms with case histories neatly piled on shelves, card indexes, a patients' register, daily reports. On the second floor we found a gymnasium and a cinema hall. A separate building housed an X-ray room and a laboratory. The hospital buildings contained airy wards of different sizes, separate rooms for one-day patients, dining rooms. Gardens enclosed by high stone fences surrounded some of the buildings. Windows were covered with iron gratings.

The condition of the patients made a striking contrast to this well-appointed background. They were wandering about the grounds of the hospital alone or in groups, carrying cups and pots in which they themselves fetched food and water from the kitchen. They moved from one building to another and had occupied the empty apartments of the medical staff. Among them we found imbeciles and schizophrenics, maniacs and paranoics. But from time to time we met persons who looked absolutely normal. They helped us bring order among the close to a thousand patients who had been abandoned to their fate here.

There was no medical staff. When our troops approached the town, all the physicians, the nurses and the overseers ran away.

Our first conversations revealed the vast and horrible scale on which the extermination of patients and other undesirables had been organized. At first these stories seemed the ravings of delirium. But during our extended stay in Obrawalde we had an opportunity to thoroughly acquaint ourselves with what had really happened here. We interrogated people who had been placed in the hospital for their anti-fascist utterances, for refractory conduct, for "besmirching the purity of Aryan blood". We examined the registers, files and case histories. Finally we had the opportunity of questioning several of the criminals.

Ever since 1940 Obrawalde had been used for concentrating psychic patients evacuated from mental hospitals located within areas bombed by the Allied air force. They were transported to Obrawalde in groups of 100 to 300. From time to time there were more than 5,000 patients here. Such transports continued arriving until January 1945, yet at that time there were not more than 1000 patients in the hospital. What had happened to all the others?

The death register covering these years supplied an exhaustive reply to this question. The last entry was numbered 18,232. In 1944 alone the records showed the admission of 3,814 patients and the death of 3,498. Only such a high rate of mortality, one unknown to any legitimate medical institution (97%), could ensure Obrawalde the necessary "turnover capacity". In the files we found copies of notices sent to relatives informing them of the death of these patients, and the num-



The Obrawalde-Meserits Psychiatric Hospital. The wing in which patients were put to death.



Rataichak, head nurse of the women's wards in Obrawalde-Meserits, who killed nearly 1500 patients with her own hands. Now under arrest.

ber of notices tallies exactly with the number of entries in the register.

Records attest that in the overwhelming majority of cases the patients died within seven or ten days after their admission to the hospital. The causes most frequently cited were: "Blood poisoning due to a furunculous condition", "Emaciation".

Lieutenant-Colonel F. I. Shkarabsky, expert on legal medicine, and Major A. Y. Marants, expert in pathological anatomy, attempted to determine the causes of death from exhumed bodies. The very method of burial spoke eloquently enough. Under the orderly rows of gravestones creating the impression of a normal cemetery, we discovered long pits in which naked corpses were heaped in four or five layers. Only in a very few cases did post-mortems reveal any signs of patholog-

ical changes as the cause of death (tuberculosis, pneumonia, heart failure). All others were the victims of "Aryan psychiatrists".

In the special-treatment rooms we found kilogram bags of Veronal and large boxes containing a hundred ampoules each of scopolamine and morphine. The patients called these special-treatment rooms "death rooms" ("Todzimmer"). It was in them that the systematic murder of the Obrawalde victims was perpetrated.

Final clarity in this picture was introduced by Rataichak, head nurse of the women's wards and a member of the Nazi Party, who was arrested in a neighbouring town.

With indescribable callousness she gave

the following testimony:

"I have been working here for about twenty years. At the beginning of the war cases of putting mental patients to death were very rare. In 1941 when Walter Grabovsky was appointed director of the hospital — he was not really a physician but a very prominent member of the National-Socialist Party — patients began to be put to death more and more frequently.

"In making his daily rounds Mutz, the head doctor (also a prominent Nazi), would point out the patients who were to be taken first to the special-treatment room and then to the 18th ward, from where the bodies were removed to the cemetery. Some were buried right here and some were transported to Frankfurt for cremation, since the construction of a crematorium in Obrawalde had only been begun.

"In the women's wards the process of killing the patients usually took place as follows: I would escort the patient to the special-treatment room. I would take three tablespoons of Veronal from one of the paper bags and dilute it in a glass of water. Some of the women had to be held by the overseers when they were given this medicine to drink. If the patient offered violent resistance we were forced to introduce the dose through a tube. Sometimes this would bring about nose bleeds. Strongly excited patients were given injections of scopolamine and morphine, The patients died in peaceful sleep."

Rataichak admitted that she herself had

thus killed nearly 1500 people.

Gulke, overseer of the men's wards, was also detained, so we had the opportunity of interrogating him as well. His function was to



Urns containing the ashes of cremated bodies.



Grave stones under which the dead were found heaped in four and five layers.

help Weideman, assistant head doctor, fill hypodermics with a mixture of five ampoules of scopolamine (0.001 cc. each) and five ampoules of morphine (0.03 cc. each) and to hold the victims while this lethal dose was injected.

In their tales all the patients expressed one and the same idea: "I knew that patients were killed here and I tried to work well and be quiet so that I should not be killed. I am happy that now I shall live." Rosenberg, a dentist suffering from encephalitis, said: "I escaped the hypodermic needle by having my dental equipment brought from home and treating the staff and the patients free of charge."

Walter Grabovsky's private "villa" with its secret office and private laboratory, experimental animals, various poisons and scores of urns containing the ashes of cremated bodies merits special, detailed study. Everything we found here confirms the reports that he was an inveterate Nazi, organizer of the murder of thousands of people. Clues from this villa led to Grabovsky's former place of work in Kalisz. To Obrawalde he brought thousands of notices certifying to the deaths of mental patients in the institution which he had directed in Kalisz.

Thus, under cover of medicine, was the "Herrenrasse" "cleansed" in Nazi Germany.

LENIN ON THE ECONOMIC TRANSFORMATION OF THE U. S. S. R.

By L. Gatovsky

TN THE LIGHT of the victories achieved by the U.S.S.R. during the Patriotic War, the greatness of the economic transformation of our country on the socialist basis stands out clearer than ever. For it is only this socialist reorganization of the country which made possible the victories which have saved humanity from fascist slavery. Such transformations have no precedent, both as regards scale and tempo. In two and a half decades a country stretching over one sixth of the surface of the globe succeeded in liquidating her agelong backwardness and in creating an industry and agriculture which is the most progressive in the world both from the social and economic standpoint. Such is the power of Leninism in practice.

The Soviet Revolution led by Lenin and Stalin was the only path our country could take in order to save her national independence and to stave off the shame of becoming enslaved by foreign countries. This has been irrefutably proved by historical facts.

Tzarist Russia economically and technically was many years behind most countries of Europe and the United States of America. Moreover the Russian bourgeoisie and landowners were not only incapable of liquidating this backwardness, but by their mismanagement only succeeded in increasing it each year. Thus for instance, in 1900, the production of pig-iron per capita of population in Russia was one-eighth of that of the United States, and one third of that of France; whereas in 1913, the per capita production of pig-iron had fallen to one-eleventh of that of the United States, and one-quarter of that of France. As Lenin pointed out, the Russian

capitalists and landowners had doomed fivesixths of the Russian population to poverty and the entire country to starvation and disintegration.

Every year foreign capital squeezed about one thousand million gold roubles out of Russia in the form of profits and dividends alone. Usurious loans, unfair trade-agreements were the rule in respect to tzarist Russia. Foreign capitalists owned 75% of the capital of the larger banks of Russia and nearly 50% of all shares in Russian industry. Foreign capitalists had taken possession of tzarist Russia's industry, capturing one key position after another. Two thirds of the machinery in Russia was imported. The entire country depended on foreign imports as regards raw materials, especially raw cotton. All these factors could not but have a serious negative effect on Russia's military strength.

Foreign capital retarded the development not only of Russia's heavy industry, but of her entire national economy, and did all it could to perpetuate Russia's technical and economic backwardness. Pre-revolutionary Russia's semicolonial dependence on foreign countries increased every year. By 1914 Russia's national debt to foreign powers surpassed four thousand million gold rubles and by 1917 it had doubled.

Even such a comparatively progressive representative of the Russian bourgeoisie as Professor Grinevetsky, in his project for rehabilitating Russia's economy (drafted in 1919) frankly and openly recommended that our country take the path of complete enslavement to foreign capital. In his book—Postwar Prospects of Russian Industry Grinevet-

sky wrote: "The fundamental task of Russia's economic rebirth and development must lie in the attraction of foreign capital... it must be the basis of our economic policy... In the future... we will have to reconcile ourselves to the dominance of foreign capital." Such was the policy of the Russian bourgeoisie.

Pre-revolutionary Russia's backwardness, her increasing dependence, led to increasing military weakness. Tzarist Russia lost the Japanese war inspite of her overwhelming superiority of population and inspite of the fine fighting qualities of the Russian soldiers. During the war of 1914—1918, the bravery and courage of the Russian soldiers was also unable to prevent the defeat of the tzarist army, which during that time underwent a serious crisis. Often there was but one rifle to three Russian soldiers. The Russian army possessed but one-twentieth the number of artillery shells possessed by the German army. In 1917 Russia was forced to import threequarters of her machine guns and four-fifths of her heavy artillery. As regards ammunition and food supplies, the Russian army was forced to live on starvation rations.

During the first world war, tzarism brought the country to complete collapse. By the beginning of 1917 the food reserves in the towns and the supplies of raw materials in the plants and factories were sufficient for but two and three days. Transport was practically at a standstill. The profound economic crisis was still more aggravated in 1917 by the attempts of the Russian bourgeoisie to stifle the revolution with the "bony hand of starvation". The country was threatened with complete ruin. The capitalists of Russia were already preparing to capitulate to Germany.

At that very moment however, the genius of Lenin revealed the causes of the approaching catastrophe. In his pre-October speeches and in the historic articles *The Imminent Catastrophe and how to Combatit*, and *Will the Bolshevics Retain State Power*, Lenin proved with irrefutable logic that by allowing the bourgeoisie to continue in power, Russia was simply inviting economic and military disaster.

Lenin gave the people the only correct, scientific and detailed political and economic programme for the salvation of the country. His solution was the creation of the Soviet power and the movement towards socialism. Lenin said that, under modern conditions.

Russia could not progress "without heading for socialism".

Lenin worked out a new theory of the socialist revolution, the theory of the possibility of the victory of socialism in one country. It needed the force of Lenin's genius to make this discovery, which heralded a new era in the history of mankind. In proposing his plan of the socialist transformation of Russia, Lenin, who was an irreconcilable enemy of all routine and stagnation, fought with all his determination and courage against all authorities of his time who clung to their "scientific" schemes for proving the impossibility of building up a socialist economy in our country.

All the "scientific authorities" of the Second International declared as a truth which needed no proof, that the transition to socialism — or, as they declared — the peaceful development of capitalism into socialism—could take place only in "civilized" European countries; and that Russia would yet have to take the long path of bourgeois development.

Lenin and Stalin, after having broken the resistance of enemy agents within the ranks of the Bolshevic Party, proposed a diametrically opposed programme.

Stalin, speaking for the Central Committee at the VIth Party Congress in the summer of 1917, said: "The possibility is not excluded that Russia will be the very country that will lay the road to socialism... We must abandon the antiquated idea that only Europe can show us the way. There is dogmatic Marxism and creative Marxism. I stand by the latter". (1917. Selected Writings and Speeches. P. 309. Lenin—Stalin.)

Lenin razed to the ground the schemes of the Second International. He smashed to smithereens the theories of the Mensheviks, who repeatedly declared that in Russia the productive forces had not yet reached that stage of development which made socialism possible and that for this reason a bourgeois-landlord government was essential in Russia. The Menshevik agents of the bourgeoisie, like the bourgeoisie themselves, supported what was in effect a policy terminating the independent existence of our state, a policy maintaining the backwardness of Russia. How sorry do these dishonorable, compromising schemes of pigmies appear in comparison with Lenin's majestic plans for

the socialist transformation of Russia! Lenin, writing of these Menshevik schemes, said: "If a definite level of culture is required for the creation of socialism (although nobody can tell what that definite "level of culture" is), why cannot we begin by achieving the prerequisites for that definite level of culture in a revolutionary way, and then, with the help of a worker's and peasant's government and a Soviet system, proceed to overtake the other nations?

... You say that civilization is necessary for the creation of socialism. Very good. But why could we not have begun by creating such prerequisites of civilization in our country as the expulsion of the landlords and the expulsion of the Russian capitalists, and then start moving towards socialism? ..." (Lenin, Selected Works, Vol. VI, pp. 511, 512.)

Lenin and Stalin understood to the full the extent of the backwardness of our country. But, at the same time, through all the poverty and lack of culture, they perceived the means of leading our country to the heights of social, economic, technical and cultural progress.

The invincible force of Lenin's scientific foresight was based on a precise calculation of Russia's forces and resources, upon a most profound knowledge of her peculiarities. Lenin knew of what our people were capable, once they became masters of their country.

Lenin in a letter published in the *Izvestia* of March 12, 1918, wrote that Russia possessed sufficient natural resources and reserves of man power, besides the tremendous creative forces released by the revolution, to enable her to create a truly powerful and prosperous country.

As a result of the Soviet Revolution, economic changes were directed for the first time in history toward the welfare of the people as a whole; the people were made the only masters of the riches of their country; and the exploitation of man by man was once and for all put an end to. For the first time in history economic changes subordinated productive forces to planned management, and for the first time in history inexhaustible resources for developing the economy and improving the welfare of the masses were discovered.

And it is for this reason that Lenin, as statesman and reformer, stands on an immeasurably higher plane than all statesmen, including the greatest, who preceded him,

But there is still another feature which radically distinguishes the socialist transformation of economy from all other types of economic reform.

It is well known that means of production based on private ownership developed hap-hazardly from the chaos of preceding economic forms. Thus, for instance, feudal forms of society led to the spontaneous development of capitalist forms of economy. The role of statesmen, including that of bourgeois revolutionaries, was then confined to supporting those new economic relations which had so spontaneously developed. It is impossible for a socialist system of production, based on public ownership, to develop spontaneously within its preceding capitalist system.

"The fundamental task of the bourgeois revolution", said Stalin, "reduces itself to seizing power and operating that power in conformity with the already existing bourgeois economy; whereas the main task of the proletarian revolution reduces itself to building up the new socialist economy after having seized power." (*Problems of Leninism*, Vol. I, page 267.)

Hence Lenin's role as the first man in history who led the building of a socialist state.

The paths of this construction were laid down for the first time by Lenin. Naturally Marx and Engels could not in their time have planned the forms and means of the construction of socialism. Lenin, who discovered the Soviet form of government as the state form for the Dictatorship of the Proletariat, and who proved the possibility of building socialism in one country, was the first to outline the policy of the dictatorship of the working class and propose concrete methods of socialist construction which were later realized. Through his plan of electrifying Russia, Lenin pointed the road to the industrialization of our country.

Lenin made clear the significance of the union of the working class with the peasantry under the leadership of the former. He created the cooperative plan of attracting the peasant toward an active participation in socialist construction, he pointed out the path of cooperating with the countryside.

The building up of a socialist economy served as the foundation for the growth of

our country's defence capacity and the development of her military strength.

Lenin pointed out the exclusive role of economics in modern warfare. As far back as the autumn of 1917, he wrote: "... Economic organization is of decisive importance in modern warfare." (Lenin—Stalin, 1917. Selected Writings and Speeches, page 454.) On the eve of the October Revolution, Lenin, proposing his programme for the reorganization of our country, stressed the fact that "Russia could utilize her revolution and her democracy to raise the whole country to an incomparably higher level of economic organization" (ibid.). Such a degree of organization, greater than that prevailing in capitalist countries, taught Lenin, could only be attained on the basis of Soviet power, in the process of socialist construction.

In September, 1917, Lenin pointed out that the military strength of countries where the land belongs to Peasants' Committees is greater than that of countries where the land belongs to landlords. He foresaw that the economic regeneration following on the very first steps of the Soviet government, would evoke mass heroism, which is a powerful factor in increasing the defensive might of the country... "in order that Russia may be capable of self-defence, in order that she may display miracles of mass heroism, the old system must be swept away with 'Jacobin' ruthlessness and Russia reconstructed and regenerated economically ... The country cannot be made capable of self-defence without the supreme enthusiasm of the people in carrying out great economic reforms boldly and resolutely." (Selected Writings and Speeches of Lenin and Stalin—1917, page 456.)

History has completely confirmed Lenin's prophecies. The strategic situation of German imperialism in the east immediately underwent a radical change: German plans for the subjugation of Russia, which in 1917 they had deemed to be so close to realization, burst like soap-bubbles. The Soviet Republic became an unsurmountable obstacle in the path of German imperialism and this was one of the deciding factors of Germany's defeat during the World War. And the fact that our country emerged victorious from the fighting of 1918-1920, despite the fact that then the Soviet government operated over less than one-quarter of the former Russian territory and that we were deprived of nearly all our grain, raw-supplies, and fuel bases — this fact can only be explained by the entire country's regeneration as a result of the Soviet system. Here again we see the heroism and selflessness of the masses in defending their Soviet homeland.

Thanks to the Soviet system, our country was able to mobilize and to utilize those few reserves which she then had at her disposal and with hitherto unprecedented system to carry out Lenin's slogan — "Everything for the war!"

After the victory which the Soviet state achieved during 1918-1920, Lenin warned us that we had finished but one phase of the war and that we had to prepare ourselves for the second. At the same time, he pointed out that this second phase would demand a still greater strain on the country's resources. At the Seventh All-Russian Congress of Soviets, he plainly stated that we would not emerge from the second phase of the war so easily and for this reason we would have to devote special attention to this phase. Lenin constantly emphasized the fact that the only possible economic foundation for socialism was a large machine industry. "And whoever forgets this", declared he, "is no true communist.'

Lenin taught us that without a powerful heavy industry "we shall perish entirely as an independent country". And at the same time he pointed out the vital importance of the socialist reorganization of the countryside. At the Eighth All-Russian Congress of Soviets held in 1920, he said that agriculture could no longer continue along obsolete lines and that it was only by raising production and increasing labour efficiency that Soviet Russia would be able to win out.

Lenin wrote: ... "Either perish, or overtake and outstrip the advanced countries economically as well... Perish, or drive full-steam ahead. That is the alternative with which history confronts us." (Lenin—Stalin, 1917. Selected Writings and Speeches. P. 457.)

In April of 1918, when the Soviet government had just taken its first steps, Lenin in drawing up the plan of scientific and technical measures to be instituted, sketched the fundamental lines of the reorganization of our state. The following problems of historical importance were among those put forward by him.

Lenin posed the colossal task of reorganizing the extremely irrational distribution of the productive forces of the country characteristic of tzarist Russia. The few industrial regions, like oases scattered in the desert, were separated by tens of thousands of miles from their sources of raw materials, fuel and energy. This clumsy distribution of the productive forces of the country along with the backward cultural conditions particularly characteristic of outlying national regions, was part of the inheritance received by the Soviet government.

One can imagine the plight of the Soviet Union if she had been forced to wage war with an opponent as powerful as Nazi Germany under conditions of economic backwardness.

Lenin's principles of distributing the productive forces of the country were universally developed in the Stalin Five Year Plans and were brilliantly carried out. This resulted in the exploitation of enormous natural resources which had hitherto lain dormant. Colossal economics in the use of national resources were made possible: industrial regions were created in the east upon which the Soviet Union could base her crushing blows against the German-fascist armies. The elimination of the economic and cultural backwardness of outlying national regions was now assured, and hitherto unheard-of material conditions were created for stimulating fraternity and friendship among the peoples of the U.S.S.R. What a distant dream does the former backwardness of our country seem to us today!

Under the leadership of Stalin, the Soviet people have fulfilled Lenin's plan of transforming our country into an industrial and collective-farm power. All Soviet industrial regions have reached a high level of development. If now we look at "the boundless spaces south-east of Rostov-on-Don and Saratov, south of Orenburg and Omsk..." we find that during the years of the Stalin Five Year Plans, they have been transformed into some of the largest coal, oil and energy-producing regions of the country. The country's third largest coal basin has sprung up in the Karaganda region. Kazakhstan's non-ferrous industry has developed to a colossal size and Kazakhstan itself has become one of the most highly developed industrial republics of the Soviet Union. Metallurgical enterprises have sprung up; machine-building and war industries have been organized in these regions; light industries and the food industry have

likewise received a great impetus. During the present war the military and industrial significance of these regions, particularly of the republics of Central Asia, has become of still greater importance. They are playing an enormous role in supplying the Red Army and war industries.

In April of 1918 Lenin declared as the guiding principle of the development of our economy the assurance of the economic independence and sovereignty of our country, the possibility of independently supplying ourselves with all basic raw supplies and manufactures.

The realization of this Leninist principle led to the strengthening of our country's economic independence.

The Stalin Five Year Plans turned the U. S. S. R. into a country producing all indispensable machinery and raw materials. If our state had not won technical and economic independence we would never have been in a position to resist the Nazi military machine. The economic help of our Allies during the war covered only a small fraction of the demands upon our war economy. In an exceedingly short space of time after the outbreak of hostilities the Soviet Union created a smoothly-running and fast-developing war economy based on its own resources.

Finally (and this was of paramount and decisive importance) Lenin, in April 1918, sketched the entire reorganization of our economy on the basis of modern technique, on the basis of electrification. This idea was realized in the historical State Plan of the Electrification of Russia (The GOELRO).

Lenin with exceptional penetration and concreteness pointed out the paths of modern technical progress. He discovered just that lever which was capable of regenerating the technical basis of our entire economy. Under modern conditions, this lever is electricity universally applied as a motive force and in industrial technology. He pointed out that under the conditions of a Soviet state, the creation of powerful regional electric power plants interconnected with high-voltage transmission lines, the construction of powerful energetic systems, would still more increase the effect of economic planning and would speed up the development of national economy. Lenin called this electrification plan "The Party's second programme", "a plan for reconstructing Russia on the basis of contemporary

heavy industry." This plan, he said, would stand before Russia as a great economic programme indicating how to place Russia on a true economic foundation. For Lenin, the programme of the electrification of the country meant the creation of a large modern industry equipped with the latest machines, an industry which would be capable of reorganizing the entire national economy, including agriculture. He stressed the vital importance of electrification for the future of the country. If the Soviet Government, he considered, is the political expression of communism, then the material foundation for communism is electrification.

Lenin said: "We shall see to it that the economic basis is transformed from a smallpeasant basis into a large-scale industrial basis. Only when the country has been electrified, when industry, agriculture and transport have been placed on the technical basis of modern large-scale industry, only then shall we be finally victorious." (Lenin, Selected Works, Vol. VIII, p. 276, 277.) The GOELRO Plan was a plan for laving the economic foundation of socialism; and it is for this very reason that it became the target for the fiercest attacks on the part of the Trotzkyites and the Rykovites. Lenin and Stalin exposed attempts of inimical elements to divert the party from the correct line. Stalin, in his letter to Lenin, realized the importance and appreciated the character of the GOELRO Plan.

During years when hunger and starvation were gnawing at the vitals of the Soviet Republic, when factory workers were receiving a daily ration of less than two ounces of bread (made mostly of bran), in those years Lenin offered the Bolshevik Party and the people a clear, majestic project for transforming our country into a mighty, prosperous state. Lenin placed before the people a task which was unprecedented in its daring, scope and completness of conception, yet scientific and practicable. In those times, Lenin was able, step by step, to work toward this end. How overjoyed he was when the first twenty million gold roubles were at last accumulated for the rehabilitation of our heavy industry. In 1921 he wrote to the Presidium of the All-Russian Conference of Electrical engineers that, in spite of the incredible difficulties facing a country whose landowners and capitalists had ruined it by four years of imperialist war and three years of civil war - a country which was being watched by the bourgeoisie of the entire world in their desire to crush it and to turn it into one of their colonies — despite the tortuous slowness of the process of electrification — this process was forging ahead.

H. G. Wells, who visited Lenin in 1920, called him "The dreamer of the Kremlin" and sneered at the plan of electrification as being "an impossible fantasy". History has shown how narrow Well's view turned out to be—that same Wells whom England regarded as a writer of great imagination. Fifteen years later Lenin's "impossible fantasy" turned out to be a reality. And this "impossible fantasy" gave birth to the industrial might of the Soviet Union, gave rise to the miraculous fighting technique of the Soviet armed forces which have crushed the Nazi military machine and saved the civilization of Europe.

Beyond the poverty and starvation then reigning in our country, Lenin saw her great future. Such was the strength of Lenin's scientific foresight. Maxim Gorky gave a brilliant description of it when he wrote that Lenin knew past history so well that he was able to view the present from the point of view of the future.

As no one before him, Lenin could foresee what was to come. He was capable of and could do this, said Gorky, because he lived with half of his great soul in the future, and because his iron yet flexible logic showed him the future in real and concrete forms. According to Gorky, herein lay the explanation of Lenin's remarkable firmness in the face of reality, which never dismayed him however great the difficulties and complications it presented.

History has confirmed the creative power of the GOELRO Plan. It was overfulfilled during the years of the Stalin Five Year Plans and its original goals have been left far behind. In carrying out Lenin's directions, the Soviet people, led by Joseph Stalin, have accomplished the colossal program of the electrification of the country. Already by the end of the second Five Year Plan, the output of electricity was more than twenty times greater than in 1913. Four fifths of the electrical energy produced in the country was being generated by electric power plants linked up into entire electrical systems. The installed capacity of power stations in the U.S.S.R. carried a working load double that of power stations abroad. Now Soviet industry has become the most modern industry in the world in respect to electrification. The U.S.S.R. occupies the first place in the world in the output of electric-furnace steel. The remarkable achievements of the electrification of the country are largely responsible for placing our country among the most technically advanced countries in the world.

Under Stalin's leadership, we see the fulfilment of Lenin's prophecy — that our country, figuratively speaking, would be able to change the old grey mare of a ruined agricultural economy for the steed of largescale machine industry and electrification. Herein lies the key to the victories of the Soviet Union during the present war.

The GOELRO Plan was the first of those large-scale economic plans to transform our country. It was followed by the First, Second and Third Plans, and finally by the General Plan, calculated to fulfil the basic economic tasks of the USSR. Lenin said that it was impossible to work without a plan covering a prolonged period and providing for serious accomplishments.

The creative genius of Lenin and of Stalin lies in their astounding ability not only to outline broad movements but also to precisely determine the main links in the chain leading to the goal. The style of Leninism, as Stalin put it, consists in combining the Russian revolutionary scope with American efficiency.

Lenin not only drew up the GOELRO Plan, but he also supervised its realization from day to day. He constantly created all prerequisites for switching over to a radical social and technical reconstruction of the country. It was to this goal that he led the masses of the people, pointing out at each stage the only correct economic policy.

Lenin regarded the strengthening of the bond between the working class and peasantry under the leadership of the workers, as a foundation stone for the success of all plans for the economic reorganization of our country. Lenin taught us that, linked up with the peasant masses, we should begin to move forward slowly at first, "but so that the whole mass will actually move forward with us. If we do that we shall in time get an acceleration of this movement such as we cannot dream of now". (Lenin, Selected Works, Vol. IX, p. 332.)

Herein lies Lenin's creative realism. His

prophecy concerning the acceleration of the tempo of our development was fulfilled in the Stalin Five Year Plans.

The great transforming power of Lenin's ideas was based on his profound knowledge of the masses, of their life, their interests, their needs, hopes and ambitions. Not a single statesman before Lenin ever possessed such a profound knowledge of his people, was so closely bound up with them, had so strong a faith in them or himself enjoyed their unbounded faith to the extent that Lenin did.

In developing the theory of Leninism, Stalin created the theory of the collectivization of agriculture, discovering its methods and forms and the path it should take. He gave it practical application by reorganizing the countryside on the basis of the collective farm.

Lenin pointed out the part played by socialist industry both in reorganizing the national economy and in changing the psychology of the peasant, the petty landowner. Lenin said: "Only a material base, technique, the employment of tractors and machinery in agriculture on a mass scale, electrification on a mass scale, can solve the problem of the small farmer, make his mentality sound, so to speak . . ." .(Lenin, Selected Works, Vol. IX, p. 111.)

Lenin taught us that the realization of the plan of electrification — i. e. the industrialization of the country, would enable the towns to render the countryside radical technical and social aid. This help would create the material foundation for an enormous increase in the productivity of agricultural labour, would "stimulate the small tillers of the soil by force of example and in their own interests to adopt large-scale collective machine agriculture"... (Lenin, Selected Works, Vol. X, p. 227).

Hence the unbreakable unity of Lenin's Plan of Electrification of the country with the plan of cooperation.

Lenin's foresight has been brilliantly confirmed. Hundreds of thousands of tractors served as the material and technical foundation for the collective farm system which finally emerged victorious. Supported by the powerful technical basis of the collective farms, the party of Lenin and Stalin conducted gigantic organizational and educational acti-

vities in the countryside. In a comparatively few years, the entire habits and psychology of the most numerous section of our country, the peasantry, changed radically. The peasant today regards his collective farm as a vital business undertaking of his own. Such is the great life-giving force of the collective farm system, without which our country would never have been able to win such decisive victories during the present war. Lenin's plan of electrification was directed to "helping the peasant reorganize his economy" on a new technical basis, on the technical basis of modern large-scale production, for as Stalin pointed out, therein lay the only means of rescuing the peasant from his poverty.

This is the distinguishing feature of socialist industrialization. In 1928, in one of his speeches directed against the opposition, Stalin identified the interests of industrialization with the interests of the bulk of the

population.

The labour heroism of the Soviet masses—the workers, peasants and intellectuals—has saved our country during the present war.

J. Stalin said that no person ever possessed such faith in the creative powers of the masses, as did Lenin. This faith was the source of Lenin's incessant teaching that we should learn from the masses, understand their actions, and thoroughly study every detail of the practical experience of the mass

struggle.

It was during the very first days of the Soviet Government that Lenin foresaw that the Soviet system would evoke a gigantic upsurge of the creative initiative of the people. They would accomplish a titanic, historical task, for in them had been awakened and revived the great latent forces of revolution. The titanic labour which Lenin foresaw has been accomplished by the Soviet people under Stalin's guidance during the Five Year Plans and during the mortal con-

flict with enemies of the Soviet Union. It is this titanic labour that has transformed our country into an impregnable fortress and has forged our victory in this war.

No less than a quarter of a century ago, Lenin pointed out that wars are won by that side which has most reserves, most sources of power, and whose people possess the greatest stamina.

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The importance of that modern economic organization of the country which Lenin outlined over a quarter of a century ago, is today being felt with particular force. During the first days of the war the Germans had control over most of Europe and were greatly superior to the Soviet Union in respect to military and economic resources. But the economic foundation of the U.S.S.R., the socialist system of economy, public ownership of the means of production, afford us a far more efficient means of exploiting our natural resources. And it is owing to this that our state achieved her economic victory over Germany.

Stalin mentioned the following conditions as being the reasons of our colossal achievements: the natural resources of the country; the existence of a government possessing both the desire and the power to exploit these natural resources for the benefit of the entire people; the support of this government by the millions of workers; the advantages of the socialist system; the existence of a consolidated and united party which is directing the efforts of the people towards one goal and which possesses the experience indispensable for surmounting all difficulties.

All this led to the historical victories of the Soviet People during the present war, despite the fact that Nazi Germany, attacking so suddenly and perfidiously, possessed great advantages at the beginning of hostilities.

JOSEPH STALIN — SCIENTIST AND STRATEGIST

By V. L. Komarov, President of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R.

IRECENTLY had the pleasure of discussing the work of the Academy of Sciences of the U. S. S. R. with Joseph Stalin. Since then I have felt the desire not only to share my ideas on the tasks facing us in view of Stalin's instructions, but also to expressing in some measure the deep feeling that moves every one who comes into personal contact with this great man.

It goes without saying that I listened to Comrade Stalin more attentively than I had ever before listened to anyone, and that this interview was one of the most important events of my life.

In the midst of the bitterest war ever waged by mankind, the leader of our country still found time to discuss new fields of scientific investigation, and to recommend new scientific projects. I was impressed by Stalin's breadth of ideas and by the monolitic unity of his manifold interests and activities.

Lenin and Stalin, the greatest men of science of the twentieth century, and the Bolshevik Party that they created, have utterly reorganized life on one sixth of the earth's surface. Under Stalin's leadership there has been created an advanced socialist industry based on the consistent and extensive application of modern knowledge in natural science and engineering and on the broad development of electrification. Under the leadership of Stalin there has been created an advanced socialist collective-farm agriculture based on modern mechanization, agro-chemistry and biology. Under the leadership of Stalin there has taken place a cultural revolution which has brought science close to the broadest strata of the people. Soviet science is now developing along the paths outlined by Stalin. One of the most important stages in the development of science was the famous speech he delivered on May 17, 1938 at a reception held in the Kremlin for workers in the field of higher education, in which he presented a classical

definition of advanced science whose first characteristic is that it is the property of the whole people.

Other outstanding characteristics distinguishing advanced science as described by Joseph Stalin are its combination of theoretical research with practical work, complete cooperation between old and young scientists, and bold innovation.

I should like to lay particular stress on the importance that Stalin attributes to scientific innovation. Ever hostile to routine and inertia, he is always calling for daring and boldness in creative work.

Joseph Stalin pointed to Lenin as a scientist who boldly fought obsolete science and blazed a trail for new science.

He cited the example of the great innovators Galileo and Darwin, who blazed trails to a new understanding of our world.

In his speech at the first All-Union Conference of Stakhanovites on November 17, 1935, Comrade Stalin spoke of the daring of genuine sciences which "is called science just because it does not recognize fetishes, just because it does not fear to raise its hand against the obsolete and antiquated, and because it lends an attentive ear to the voice of experience, of practice."

These principles of bold and daring innovation form the cornerstone of Stalin's own scientific activity. These are the principles that he constantly teaches to Soviet scientists. In the years of the present war, when Soviet science was confronted with new and exceedingly difficult tasks, when all the manifold activities of our institutes had to be subordinated to the needs of the front, Joseph Stalin proposed a concrete and lucid program of action which was permeated with the same great ideas of advanced science.

If, together with all the scientists of the Soviet Union, the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. has really attained any measure of

success in the great and sacred cause of defeating the enemy, it is largely indebted for this success to the guidance, attention and solicitude of Joseph Stalin. In his speech on the 27th anniversary of the Soviet revolution, Stalin gave a high appraisal of the work accomplished by Soviet intellectuals:

"Our intellectuals are boldly pursuing the path of technical and cultural innovation, are successfully promoting modern science and are creatively utilizing its achievements for the production of armaments for the Red Army. By their constructive efforts Soviet intellectuals have made an invaluable contribution to the cause of defeating the enemy."

These words oblige us to further tireless and selfless labour for our country's benefit. We must help the Red Army in its last decisive blows at the enemy. We must take active part in the economic and cultural rehabilitation of the liberated areas. We must actively stimulate important theoretical researches. We must justify our high calling of scientists of the Stalinist epoch.

In his talk with me, Joseph Stalin discussed a number of important tasks whose solution would help to raise Soviet science to a still higher level.

The mobilization of resources to serve the needs of the front and the war industry and the rehabilitation of national economy in the liberated areas is fixing the attention of the state on the problem of electric power in general, on the tasks of the power industry, and the problem of motor fuel in particular.

To solve the problems of the oil industry the concerted work of geologists, electrical engineers, technologists, chemists, physicists and scientists of many other specialties is required. For this reason the Academy of Sciences has created a commission to render scientific and technical assistance whose purpose is to further the development of the oil industry. This enterprising step has received the support of the government and of Comrade Stalin personally and it is now up to the Academy of Sciences to justify the country's trust by means of its practical work.

In the field of natural resources one of the most important tasks now facing the Academy of Sciences is to locate new ore bases for Leningrad industry. The government has imposed upon us the task of locating iron ore deposits in the districts adjacent to Leningrad with the purpose of creating an indepen-

dent metallurgical base for Leningrad fact-

While satisfying the urgent demands which industry makes of science, the Academy of Sciences must simultaneously concentrate its efforts on broad theoretical research. Of the branches of science that are related to the scientific world outlook as a whole, the history of natural science is one of the most important. The war has shown how important it is that the people as a whole should preserve the memory of the cultural and scientific treasures of the past, that the people should know and love the work of the great men of science, that the youth of the country comprehend science in its historical aspect. Joseph Stalin attaches the greatest importance to the history of natural science and the creation of a scientific centre within the system of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. to study the history of natural science in both the U.S.S.R. and in the whole world.

We are now celebrating the anniversary of one of the most important dates in the history of Russian science. 1945 marks 220 years since Peter I founded the Russian Academy of Sciences. In the more than two centuries of its existence the Academy of Sciences has contributed much that is of value to the country and to world scientific thought. It is impressive to look back on its glorious path. In doing so we are struck by the giant progress our science has made during the Stalinist epoch, the breadth and depth that scientific research has assumed and the closeness with which it is bound up with the life of the country. The anniversary of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. is a holiday for world science, and representatives of scientific thought in all the friendly nations will be welcome guests at our celebrations.

We are soon also to celebrate the centenary of the Geographical Society, which has done fine service in studying the natural environment of our own and other countries.

In reviewing the past, one gains an even deeper appreciation of the exceptional opportunities open to the Soviet scientists today. The government stints nothing to put the most up-to-date laboratory equipment, literature, and all other requirements of scientific work at the disposal of scientists.

In our discussion Joseph Stalin charged the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. with working out ways and means of providing scientists with the maximum supply of foreign literature. "No expense is too great for this purpose", he said. "It will repay itself with interest." He gave similar instructions in regard to laboratory equipment for scientific institutions.

Scientific centres have arisen in all the republics of the Soviet Union. Some of the branches of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. have become independent academies of union republics (Georgia, Armenia, Uzbekistan). Independent Academies of Sciences exist in the Ukraine and Byelorussia and one was recently founded in Lithuania. There can be no doubt that Academies of Sciences will be founded in other union republics as well. The time has come to think of coordinating their work, to have the all-Union scientific centres assist the republican academies. This is the task of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R., one that stems from the very essence of the Leninist-Stalinist national policy, from the nature of our multi-national state.

These are the vital tasks in regard to which I received instructions from Joseph Stalin. There is no doubt that the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. will carry them out and thereby add new pages to the history of

science in the Stalinist epoch.

The fact that Marshal Stalin could find time, now in the concluding stage of the war, to give his attention to matters concerning the country's scientific life is profoundly significant. In his person he combines the qualities of a general and a scientist, of an organizer of armed forces and an organizer of Soviet science. This inspired thinker, scientist and continuer of the work of Marx and Lenin, who has developed their great teaching fur-

ther and has given embodiment and synthesis to the most advanced tendencies in philosophy, natural science and the social sciences of all the centuries and peoples, has become the greatest figure in this war against fascism. This man of science, our Stalin, has become the saviour of civilization.

Once, about two years ago, when I was thinking of the great danger that menaced the world, I recalled a story by Wells in which he paints a picture of the complete collapse of civilization as a result of war. London becomes a wasteland. An old man tells a group of children about the streets and green squares that once covered this waste. The children cannot believe him. "This is the prospect", I wrote then, "that menaces the whole of human civilization should fascism win. If the fascists win, all progress will be stopped. The development of engineering science, the labours of Watt, Stephenson, Bessemer, and Edison will be erased. Natural science will be stifled and the name of Galileo, Leibnitz, Newton, Darwin and Mendeleyev will be forgotten. Social thinking will be stamped out. Who, then, will save mankind, his culture and progress from this dire danger? The Red Army!"

Under the leadership of Marshal Joseph Stalin and in fighting alliance with the armies of our gallant allies the Red Army is achieving great victories. Germany is now pressed in a vise formed by two fronts. The hour of final victory is at hand. The holiday of victory will be the holiday of the peoples, of civilization and science.

For this final victory over the dark forces of fascism mankind will be largely indebted to the genius of Joseph Stalin.

PREMATURE OLD AGE— ITS CAUSES AND PROPHYLAXIS

By Prof. M. K. Petrova

THE IDEA that "man is as old as his arteries", that sclerosis of the blood vessels leads to the ageing of the entire organism, is still common in medicine. Modern science, however, pictures the process of senescence as a gradual weakening of the functions of all the cells of an organism, as an alteration in their physico-chemical structure, in consequence of which the cells lose their ability to reproduce and renew themselves. In accordance with this view the cells become choked with ripe substances which, being ripe, are no longer necessary to them at all, — with colloids and myceloids. This led to the view that old age is a colloidal disturbance, — a diseased condition of the body caused by the presence of colloids everywhere, both in the protoplasm of the cells themselves and in the intercellular substances. I. I. Mechnikov had another explanation for senescence. He considered its cause to be the chronic poisoning of the organism by the products of the life activities of putrefaction bacteria lodged in the large intestines. Daily observations prevent us from agreeing with Mechnikov.

In the last ten years the view that senescence results from disturbances in the normal functions of the internal secretion glands (the endocrine glands) and especially the sex glands was advanced and had become very widespread. These ideas led to the performance of rejuvenation operations. Voronoff began to graft sex glands, Steinach to ligature the vas deferens. But at a meeting of the Academy of Medicine in Paris, Gleim expressed himself very sceptical of the rejuvenation operations performed by Voronoff and Steinach, inasmuch as the process of senescence is too complex a phenomenon to be dependent upon only one organ. Another author, Marinescu, expressed the view that weakening of the functions of the sex glands is not the cause but the result of old age.

At the present time it may be considered commonly accepted that rejuvenation operations are not a means of prolonging life. One author who studied this problem deeply, writes that "by stimulating the activities of the sex glands we do not so much claim to add years to life as to add life to the years that still remain to be lived." Sometimes this rejuvenation does not come easy to the organism. Evidently a flare up of juvenescence frequently leads to rather rapid and complete exhaustion of the organism and its conse-

quent complete collapse.

The rejuvenation experiments of Brown-Sequard, who suggested using extracts of the seminal glands, also failed to justify the hope placed in them. In 1939, at a conference held to discuss the problems of old age and the prophylaxis of premature senescence of the organism, Prof. Shereshevsky analysed the changes that take place with age from the point of view of the clinician. He pointed out that many people who had attained great age had very strong endocrine systems and cited that, on the contrary, he had observed examples of marked senescence in organisms suffering from clearly defined forms of hypothyroidism (deficient activity of the thyroid gland). He cited several foreign authors to prove his view of the importance of the endocrine system in the process of senescence, pointing out that in cases of atrophy of the sex glands and especially of the anterior lobe of the pituitary gland senescent phenomena are the rule. That the endocrine glands, especially the thyroid glands, the sex glands and the pituitary body participate in the process of senescence, is in his opinion, a fact that cannot be questioned, but affections of the endocrine glands can scarcely be the sole cause of premature senility.

I will not dwell here on the statements of other speakers at the above-mentioned conference (referring to changes in the subcortical ganglia where the centres of the vegetative nervous system which innervates the internal organs are situated, to metabolic disturbances, changes in the intestinal flora. etc.), but confine myself merely to mentioning the researches in this field conducted by A. A. Bogomolets, member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. Contrary to the commonly accepted view, he holds that vascular sclerosis is not a cause but merely one of the results of the general senile decrepitude of the organism. In his opinion the organism is not as old as its blood vessels but as old as its vascular-connective tissue. This tissue with its diverse cellular elements. constitutes a physiologic system which performs exceedingly important functions, acting as a sort of root for the organism, since it is through it and with its active participation that nutritive substances pass from the blood to the cells of the internal organs and all the tissues of the organism. A. A. Bogomolets, by the way, also points out that the vascular-connective tissue is likewise of tremendous importance for the nervous system. Referring to clinical observations, he cites, for instance, cases of schizophrenie in which the injection of suitable doses of a serum stimulating the functions of the vascularconnective tissue (which are always weakened in the disease), helps bring about an improvement in the general condition of the organism.

It should be said that in studying the problem of cancer, on the basis of his own factual material and the material of other researchers (Prof. Ulezko-Stroganova and others), A. A. Bogomolets comes to the conclusion that the cause of cancer, as of premature senility, is the weakening of and the disturbance in the functions of the vascularconnective tissue. "When the vascular-connective tissue is healthy there can be no cancer!" Thus A. A. Bogomolets attributes the principal role both in the origin of cancer and in the premature senile decrepitude of the organism to the physiologic system of the vascular-connective tissue. It was established at this conference (Prof. Khalatov and others) that there are two types of age: healthy, natural age which is physiologic, and abnormal age which is pathologic. The latter is brought on by the action of various factors on the organism: infections, toxins, social and labor conditions, etc., the longevity of

normal physiologic age being in many respects determined by the physiologic condition of the vascular-connective tissue. The conference concluded that in order to combat premature senility effectively it is necessary to make a special study of the roles of the physiologic system of the connective tissue, the nervous system and the endocrine organs. The conference called upon all scientists engaged in the study of senescence to centre their attention on the registration and study of the various factors that promote premature senility and on finding means of stimulating the functions of the physiologic system of the connective tissue and preventing its debilitation in the organism.

In response to this appeal of the conference I have considered it my duty to present my experimental data, which I obtained not with the special purpose of studying the problem of senescence but as a result of many years of observation of one and the same group of animals. I believe that this data will throw some light on the question of methods of stimulating or depressing the functions of the physiologic system of the vascular-connective tissue and will help to establish the cardinal and primary cause of the changes that occur in these functions.

Experiments on conditioned reflexes in Pavlov's laboratory established doubt the following important fact: the cells of its cerebral cortex in every experimental dog have a maximum capacity for being stimulated, have a limit of harmless functional strain, and a limit of the cell's capacity to function, beyond which inhibition for the sake of protecting the cells from excessive strain sets in. This phenomenon of protection is known as protective inhibition. According to numerous data this inhibition plays an essential role in nervous and psychic diseases. Having worked for some thirty years in the field of physiology and for the last twenty years in the field of the pathology of the cerebrum in animals (the higher nervous activity), I had the opportunity of inducing a number of functional disturbances of this activity. During this extensive period of time I have induced pathological conditions of the nervous activity which manifested themselves in changes in the general behaviour of the animals as well as in their conditioned reflex activity and which lasted for weeks, months, and even years. The application to our animals of stimuli that were too strong and too complex for their nervous systems, and also of conditions that overtaxed the inhibitory process, resulted in a conflict between the two processes which upset the nervous equilibrium of the animals, sometimes in a very prolonged and marked manner. The forms in which these neurotic conditions, "dog neuroses", appeared, varied. Sometimes they took the form of hypnotic conditions of varying intensity with their different phases (paradoxical and ultraparadoxical), sometimes the form of a weakening of the excitory or inhibitory processes, or even of both together, depending on the nervous type of the given animal, sometimes they assumed the form of chaotic activity and, finally, sometimes the form of a regular alternation of days of normal activity with days in which this activity was either markedly reduced or totally absent. Especially interesting material was obtained during Paylov's lifetime on animals that were weakened by castration. Such material was also obtained until very lately in the laboratory of L. A. Orbeli, Member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. Having studied the true physiologic action on the nervous system of numerous medical agents that are customarily used in nervous therapy, we used them very successfully on our neurotic dogs. We spent much time in studying the higher nervous activity in animals and repeatedly had occasion to observe that an animal required to perform a task beyond the strength of its nervous system fell into a more or less clearly defined hypnotic state. This fact gave I. P. Pavlov the right to assume that this was the organism's normal physiologic method of protecting against a morbific agent. To protect the nerve cells from functional disturbances nature itself constantly sent inhibitions in the form of hypnotic conditions of varying degrees of intensity. Pavlov's view that inhibition plays a tremendous restorative role in cases of weakened brain cells has found brilliant confirmation in the highly effective treatment of certain forms of schizophrenia by prolonged narcotic sleep.

The results of prolonged inhibition in the form of sleep, induced by the use of narcotic soporifics for dogs suffering from nervous diseases were also very positive and prolonged. In an exceedingly great number of cases it could be observed that every form of inhibition as well as the inhibition induced by bromine and other medicinal agents, is a factor promoting the restoration of weakened nervous activity. This suggested the idea of using the hypnotic sleep inhibition (induced in dogs by weak stimuli), which under monotonous conditions passes into a deep slumber, as a medical agent. As a result of two and a half hours of such additional sleep daily, absolutely every dog suffering from serious forms of neuroses rapidly recovered (in the course of two or three weeks). This was especially marked in the disappearance of the various skin diseases (eczema, ulcers, furunculosis) that accompany neuroses, for which local treatment had been absolutely useless. Under the influence of this additional sleep, to which the dogs were subjected for from two weeks to three months, nervous equilibrium was restored and all these specific skin diseases, as well as conditioned precancerous diseases of the skin (papilommas) disappeared. Under the influence of the protecting inhibitions evoked in the dog by such terrifying factors as air raids and bombardments, large tumours began to grow soft and resolve while large papillomas shrank in size, dried up, and then disappeared completely.

At first these experiments were performed on eleven dogs — nine of them castrated and two normal. The dogs were castrated in order to determine the influence of the sex hormones on the higher nervous activity. The experiments on these animals were continued for a long time, from twelve to thirteen years on most of the dogs, for fifteen years on one of them. As a result of our prolonged observations of castrated animals we came to the conclusion that in the final analysis, castration has a weakening effect on the dogs' cerebral cortex. Disturbances in the normal nervous activity of the animals set in either immediately after castration or somewhat later, sometimes being of brief duration, sometimes of long duration, sometimes lasting throughout the dog's life. This disturbance consisted essentially in the weakening of both the excitory and inhibitory processes, sometimes both processes being affected in equal measure, sometimes the inhibitory process being more affected. Instead of being regular, as in normal animals, the conditioned-reflex activities became chaotic: all the symptoms resembled those observed when the animals were in a hypnotic state or when there was a weakening of their cerebral cortexes. In this condition the effects of positive stimuli were reduced, disappeared, or failed to correspond to the strength of the stimulus (paradoxal phase; weak stimuli produced the greatest effect); or else there occured a distortion of effects, these being produced by negative rather than by positive stimuli (ultra-paradoxical phase of the hypnotic condition) — a phenomenon that may be observed in mental patients with weakened cerebral cortexes.

The above-described disturbance in the normal nervous activity of animals usually assumed a periodic nature, testifying to the impossibility of constant, intense work for the given nervous system of dogs of all ages. even the very youngest. This was confirmed by the fact when we allowed the dogs proper rest, performing our experiments only at intervals of two or three days, rather than every day in succession, more or less normal nervous activity was restored. The same effect was achieved by administering bromines to the castrated animals. In the process of studying the higher nervous activity of all our animals we remarked the striking fact that only those dogs (there were seven of them), whose nervous systems had been overstrained for many years in succession the animals being constantly subjected to difficult tests ("psychic traumas") as a result of which they had become markedly neurotic-suffered from various skin diseases (chronic eczema, chronic ulcers, furunculosis), and that the appearance of these skin diseases, recurring repeatedly in the course of many years in succession, was always preceded by "collapses" of nervous activity, induced by various causes and evoking a marked weakening in the functions of the cerebral cortex. On the other hand, the animals that were safeguarded from nervous traumas (there were four of them), whose nervous systems were provided with the best conditions for normal functioning, were in a state of permanent nervous equilibrium. In contrast to the traumatized animals these normal animals were absolutely free of all skin diseases all the time, despite the fact that all the dogs were fed exactly alike and in all other respects were kept under the same conditions. Recently, in continuing our work with these dogs and accumulating more experimental data, we were struck by an even more interesting and equally unexpected fact that subsequently turned our thoughts in a definite direction. After their death, all our laboratory animals were autopsied and their organs subjected to microscopic examination. Both benign and malignant growths — conditioned pre-cancerous diseases, papillomas, cancers, sarcomas, fibromas, etc. were discovered in all the chronically neurotic animals. Some of these diseases had been discovered even during the life of the animals, but in most cases were discovered only upon autopsy. An interesting factor in our experiments was the fact that under the influence of protective inhibitions, hypnotic sleep inhibitions, prolonged rest and medicinal agents that we had studied physiologically and had tested beyond a doubt as promoting the restoration of nervous equilibrium, the conditioned precancerous diseases — papillomas — for the greater part either disappeared completely or else became transformed into a benign form hyperkeratosis. The same may be said about growths which under the influence of the inhibited state (protective inhibition) and rest rapidly decreased in size, grew soft, resolved and disappeared almost completely. Among dogs of weak nervous type, which, like the acute neurotics, worked all the time but under peaceful conditions, without their nervous activity being overtaxed and without being subjected to nervous traumas, neither specific skin diseases nor growths of any kind were observed through all these years - given the condition that feeding and living conditions were identical for all. The above facts concerning these dogs led us to think that this was not an accidental phenomenon, for it manifested itself too systematically through the course of many years. We began to assume that the cerebral hemispheres and especially the cerebral cortex were the first impulse, the first signal for the appearance and development of pathological processes in the organism, not only specific skin diseases, but also, as we were able to observe, other, concomitant, sometimes very clearly defined pathological changes in the internal organs, such as cancer, sarcoma, etc.

The experimental verification of this fact on young dogs of one and two years of age and on mice with cancerogenous substances that led to the development of cancer, confirmed this hypothesis. It is evidently true that the initial cause, the leading factor, in these disturbances is the cerebral cortex whose functions are linked with those of the vegetative and endocrine systems (as was demonstrated by the experiments of both L. A. Orbeli's school and our own) and also, quite probably, with the physiologic system of the vascular-connective tissue. The comprehensive convincing and extensive material presented by Academician Bogomolets and Professor Ulezko-Stroganov, compels us to believe that this is true.

In the final analysis, having worked with our old laboratory animals so long, we were again quite unexpectedly struck by another interesting new fact, namely, the marked difference in the general appearance, the general behaviour and the conditioned-reflex activities of dogs of strong nervous type that had been chronically nervously traumatized for years on end — and calm dogs of weak nervous type which we had deliberately protected from nervous traumas throughout their lives. On the latter we had for years tried various medicinal measures tending to strengthen their weak nervous systems, such as bromins, bromine and coffein, calcium chlorids, luminal, phosphorus salts, sympatomimetin, valerian. We had also lessened the nervous strain under which they were constantly obliged to work. Sometimes we allowed them to rest regularly from one to three days before each experiment. We tried narcotic sleep inhibition on them (the narcosis was administered two or three times for six days each with an interval of two weeks between each dose), and also hypnotic sleep inhibition that passed into profound normal sleep. This last measure we used extensively for two and a half or three hours daily in the course of two or three weeks. This additional sleep was sometimes continued daily for a period of three months. Thus, with one weak old dog named Hop the three months' period of sleep was repeated twice in the course of a year. Although they were of a strong nervous type, all the seven chronically traumatized dogs were very decrepit and ugly in appearance: they looked much older than their years and much thinner than they had been before. Their hair fell out, and the coats of some of them turned quite grey. While the dogs were in an acute neurotic condition their skins periodically became covered with eczema, ulcers, small furuncles. Some also suffered from papillomas. These dogs lost many of their teeth, while those that remained were

badly decayed with merely their roots protruding. They already had poor eyesight at the age of twelve or thirteen years (they faltered when reaching for their food), their lenses were dimmed. One of the dogs, John, an acutely neurotic type with clearly defined pathological neurotic symptoms, suffered from fear of falling (falling phobia) and also from an early defined case of glaucoma. The nails on the toes of these dogs were all rubbed off. In the last few years (three or four years before their death) these dogs, which were now fourteen and fifteen years old, were no longer able to spring up on the rather high experimental stand. They all had to reach it with the aid of an intermediary chair, upon which they first placed their front legs and then their hind ones. Sometimes they could not do even this and had simply to be lifted from the floor to the stand. Almost all of them suffered from swollen legs joints. Their muscular tonus grew feeble. They walked slowly, with drooping heads. They had to be pulled along on a chain, especially when ascending stairs. They entered the experimental room very unwillingly. As a result of the weakening of their nervous processes their conditioned-reflex activity was markedly reduced and at times altogether lacking¹. Only under the influence of the various therapeutic measures mentioned above was this activity restored to the extent of inflicting new nervous traumas upon them, traumas which for them were very acute. They all died between the ages of thirteen and a half and fifteen years. We had four dogs whose nervous systems had been always in a state of complete equilibrium thanks to the fact that their nervous activity had not only not been burdened with various tasks. but, on the contrary, had been lightened in every possible way and provided with the most favourable conditions. Three of them were of a weak nervous type, but the fourth, on the contrary, was exceptionally strong, in fact the very strongest I. P. Pavlov had seen in thirty years of work (this was Tombush, a normal, sanguine type).

I shall not touch here on all the dogs individually — they form the subject of a different paper — but for the sake of illustration I will cite only one extremely strong type and

¹ Conditioned association with an unconditioned sex reaction was absolutely lacking in them (complete absence of any reaction whatsoever among the female dogs).

one very weak type of dog, whose nervous system was spared more in all the thirteen years of work with it, than the nervous systems of all the other dogs. I am referring here to Hop, a German police dog. Hop was taken into the laboratory at the age of four years in order to study the effect of castration on the higher nervous activity. The dog had been experimented on for two years prior to castration and during this time it was definitely established that it was of a rather weak and easily inhibited nervous type. After castration which was performed by I. P. Pavlov in 1930, the tonus of its cortex was markedly improved. At the same time there was also a marked change in its external behaviour. The dog frequently showed a cheerful and playful spirit that had not been characteristic. This unnaturally cheerful disposition that appeared after castration lasted four months. True, this was not a constant condition, but one that appeared intermittently, after long intervals. At the expiration of four months after castration there set in a marked weakening of its cerebral cortex, one much more marked than had been observed when the dog was normal. The dog refused to eat, symptoms of negativism appeared, etc. It was at this stage that Hop for the first time showed periodicity in work. The regular rest allowed Hop for two or three days before each experiment in the course of a month, appreciably restored his weakened nervous activity. After the administration of bromine in doses corresponding to his weak nervous system, Hop began to work better than he had prior to castration. Evidently the sex hormone as a strong stimulus, was inimical to this weak dog, for sexual excitation overtaxed its weak nervous activity. Thus castration improved its condition, but its effect was not constant — the general cheerful condition and heightened tonus of the cortex alternated with depression and a correspondingly lowered tonus of the cerebral cortex, i. e. its work gradually took on a cyclic quality. Hop's naturally weak cerebral cortex was made still weaker by castration, so that it could no longer cope with work by itself without outside assistance. Only the administration of adequate doses of bromine roused the dog to a state of nervous activity that was satisfactory in all respects. Now the dog could work and quite well, considering its weak nervous system, if it were dosed with bromine. Failing the latter, all its conditioned-reflex activity was reduced

to zero (as was true of two other weak dogs). Towards the end of 1932 we likewise began to dose Hop with luminal. In studying the dog's nervous type and testing the mobility of its nerve processes by transforming certain reflexes into their reverse, Hop's weak nervous system (as also those of the other weak dogs) was unable to bear the strain of the conflict of excitory and inhibitory processes. As a result the dog fell into a neurotic condition. After curing this neurosis, which did not last long, it was resolved to discontinue subjecting the nervous systems of weak castrated dogs to hard tests, and from 1934 to 1941 they were kept on the ordinary, easy system of conditioned stimuli stereotypedly repeated from day to day and from year to year. We invariably gave these dogs, and especially Hop, the best conditions of work, never overburdening their nervous activity but rather making things easier and strengthening them by means of the medicinal measures we had already tested on countless other dogs. For six years in succession Hop was given bromine in small doses that stimulated his nervous system and for two years he was given a mixture of bromine and coffein (which proved to be very effective). Then, for almost a year, phosphorus salts were tried on these dogs and later for ten months calcium chloride salts which in optimum doses brought about a marked improvement in the tonus of the cortex. Valerian was also used for a long time on this dog and lately Professor Chukichev's sympatomimetin, as well¹, which likewise helped to raise the nervous tonus. Besides this, Hop, as all our other castrated dogs, was only gradually put back to work again after summer vacations. The prolonged effect of regular rest — two or three days' interval between each experiment — was also tried on him, as well as on all the rest of our castrated dogs and all our acutely neurotic dogs in general, and this likewise had a beneficial effect on dogs of naturally weak nervous systems. I. P. Pavlov always attached a great deal of importance to inhibition in restoring a weakened nervous system. For this reason Hop along with the other acutely neurotic dogs was subjected to six days of narcotic sleep induced by the administration of veronal. This prolonged sleep markedly helped to strengthen the weak nervous system of the

¹ A substance of proteid origin whose effect resembles the excitation of the sympathetic nerve.

dogs and its beneficial effect was evident for a long time after its administration. After this sleep Hop could work well for a long time without the support of bromine, a thing it could not do before. But the most effective means of strengthening Hop's weak nervous system, as also the nervous systems of all the other weakened neurotic dogs, was hypnotic sleep inhibition caused by the use of weak stimuli under adequate conditions. This inevitably passed into a deep natural sleep accompanied by snoring. (Hop was one of the dogs that was subjected to the effects of such hypnotic sleep inhibition for a prolonged period.)

For three months in succession Hop was subjected to such involuntary additional sleep for two and a half hours each day, and in the following, equally prolonged period, to the combined effect of sleep inhibition and small doses of sympatomimetin. In the latest period the small doses of sympatomimetin were combined with an interval of two or three days' rest before each experiment. As a result of these prolonged therapeutic influences on the dog's weak nervous system and the favourable conditions for work provided, especially during the last seven years of its life, Hop differed markedly from dogs which were constantly subjected to difficult nervous tasks, resulting gradually in a "collapse" of their nervous activity.

Hop likewise differed from all the other castrated dogs, even from those that were from one to three years his junior, both in external appearance and in his general behaviour. Despite the fact that he was almost seventeen years old he was always cheerful and calm. His muscular tonus was high, he ran up the stairs to the laboratory quickly. He always jumped on to the experimental table with a rush, independently, without the least assistance from anybody, a feat which, as has already been mentioned, even younger neurotic dogs of strong nervous type had been unable to do for several years. Hop's external appearance likewise gave no indication of his actual age. He looked young - no more than ten years old. His cerebral activity was also lively, belying his true age. When we compare the data of the experiments performed with the young, castrated Hop in 1931 with those of the experiments performed on him in 1941—after ten years of castration, instead of the deterioration we might expect we find

a marked improvement in his conditionedreflex activity. The dog continued in this invariably calm, good condition until June 1941 when, discovering that it had a slight paresis of the hind legs (indicated by a slight drag) we killed it. The performance of an autopsy revealed that unlike all the other chronically traumatized dogs, Hop had no growth processes either on his skin or on his internal organs.

All the above facts about this dog which was specially protected from all possible nervous traumas, which for thirteen years worked peacefully without straining its nervous activity and which for the greater part of its life was subjected to beneficial therapeutic treatment of its cerebral cortex, strikingly emphasize the tremendous role played by functional exhaustion, by the weakened cerebral cortex, in the origin of various skin diseases and growths in the internal organs. As we see from the example of Hop (judging from the youthful appearance that he and the other dogs that were safeguarded from nervous traumas had) the weakened, exhausted cerebral cortex plays a significant role in furthering the premature senescence of the organism.

Hop, the dog described above, and two others that were safeguarded from nervous traumas, were castrated dogs of a weak type, but we also had a dog called Tombush that was a normal pedigreed bulldog. In its daily work in the course of twelve years Tombush never experienced any nervous difficulties. This dog was a strong representative of the equilibrated, sanguine type, "the perfect type" as I. P. Pavlov called it, and in the strength and mobility of its nervous processes it excelled all the dogs in the laboratories of I. P. Pavlov and L. A. Orbeli.

Like a true sanguine type, Tombush showed the maximum energy when at liberty, being unusually quick and active in his movements, and the maximum tranquility under monotonous experimental conditions, compensating for the energy that he expended while at liberty by means of hypnotic sleep inhibition which towards the end of the experiments passed into profound sleep. By this means he preserved his invariable nervous equilibrium. The rapidity and ease with which this dog (according to Pavlov, — the only one of its kind), solved all the difficult tasks that were presented to it one after the other, tasks which placed a considerable strain on its nerv-

ous activity, was astonishing. The dog quickly coped with all these tasks without losing its nervous equilibrium . . .

In our twenty years of experiments in restoring nervous equilibrium we found prolonged sleep the most effective treatment. This fully accords with present physiological data on the importance of sleep in the life of an organism. A dog may starve for twentyfive days and yet recuperate, while five days of artificially induced insomnia are sufficient to cause its death (Tarkhanov).

Thanks to his ability to sink rapidly into sleep under monotonous experimental conditions Tombush safeguarded his naturally strong cerebral cortex from exhaustion and fatigue. Despite the fact that he was kept under the same conditions and had the same diet as all the other dogs, Tombush, like the three weak dogs that were safeguarded from nervous traumas, looked very young, much younger, in fact, than his actual years. He was always clean and neat and through all the twelve years of his life in the laboratory was free from all skin diseases, or diseases of the joints and internal organs. As he grew old his conditioned-reflex activity not only did not weaken in any way, but, on the contrary, even grew stronger together with the heightening of the general tonus of the cortex as a result of the occurrence of air raids and bombardments at that time which hindered the development of the hypnotic state.

At this period his conditioned reflexes became exceptionally strong. Absolutely nothing, no nervous tasks of any kind, were too difficult for him. Most other dogs became deeply neurotic from these causes. He was absolutely invulnerable. The attraction he felt towards female dogs — a conditioned association with an unconditioned sex reaction — was extremely well defined. Unfortunately, Tombush perished in 1942 (from hunger and cold, at a time when we had ceased working) at the age of fourteen.

In view of his invulnerability to all our measures aimed at weakening nervous activity we did not expect to discover any particular pathological changes in his body. Our opinion was fully justified. Autopsy revealed the lack of any pathological changes in his body except for extreme emaciation and frost-bitten feet. The last of the four dogs to be protected from nervous traumas is alive and healthy to

this day. In the twelve years of its life in the laboratory this dog also has never had and does not now have any diseases of the skin or the internal organs and it also shows no visible signs of old age despite the fact that it is almost fifteen years old.

Thus, despite the fact that all the eleven dogs were the subjects of prolonged experiments and were kept and fed exactly alike, they differed markedly from each other. Although the first seven dogs were of a strong type they became acutely neurotic and were exactly the opposite of the calm dogs that had been protected from nervous traumas both in respect to the development of morbific processes in the organism and in respect to the above-mentioned changes accompanying the rapidly ageing organism. Thus, without ever having intended to, we were able to observe in our dogs both physiologic, normal old age and pathological old age.

Our experimental data, obtained, I repeat, accidentally, without any deliberate intention of studying the causes of premature senility, show that in the process of senescence it is the central nervous system and primarily the cerebral cortex that plays the most important role. Can this data, obtained from work with animals, be reconciled with the fully substantiated and exhaustive data of Academician Bogomolets and the views of other authors on this question? Of course it can. Academician Bogomolets himself helps us do this by pointing out the weakening and the changes that take place in the physiologic system of the connective tissue in schizophrenic patients.

What causes the changes in this system in cases of schizofrenia? Evidently, the weakness and exhaustion of the brain-cells of these patients. He points out that the treatment of such patients with injections of his antireticular and cytotoxic serum in small stimulating doses intensifies the activity of the vascularconnective tissue, restores its functions, and in many cases is also very effective in improving the psychic activity of shizophrenic patients. But it must not be forgotten that "astonishing" (I. P. Pavlov's expression), perhaps even more effective results were obtained in treating schizophrenic patients by Prof. Ivanov-Smolensky in I. P. Pavlov's clinic. Evidently by acting through the connective tissue, Academician Bogomolets' serum also helps restore the cerebral cortex, containing within itself substances which like bromine, sympatomimetin and

other medicinal agents for the treatment of the nervous system, stimulate the activity of the brain cells. Academician Bogomolets' hypothesis that the symptoms of age in many systems, and primarily in the physiologic system of the connective tissue appear much earlier than symptoms of age in the nervous system, may be objected to on the grounds that we are not referring to the crude anatomic changes in the cerebral cortex which may be seen with the naked eye but to purely functional, structural-dynamic disturbances in it, these disturbances concerning the correct course of the principal nervous processes and the relationships between them. These functional disturbances in the cerebral cortex evidently occur first of all and serve as the impetus for all that follows. Moreover, it has lately been proved that the blood comes into contact with the nerve cells even without the intermediate agency of the physiologic system of the connective tissue. In confirmation of our experimental data Professor Bazilevich, speaking at the conference mentioned at the beginning of this paper said: "The state of psychical preservation characteristic of people of great age (from ninety to 142 years) corresponds to their external appearance, which in its turn is by no means that which is generally expected of people of their age. The harmonious decline of the organism does not transform healthy men into decrepit, feebleminded creatures, no matter how great the age to which they attain. On the contrary, even granting such decline (the typical concomitant of normal senility) people of great age retain their mental abilities, their physical strength, a certain capacity for work; they are able to lead normal lives and to be useful and active members of socialist society."

As may be seen from the above-cited data obtained from experiments carried on with animals for many years, physiology, as always, travels hand in hand with the clinic. Our dogs which were safeguarded from nervous traumas and which were always performing some work, but work that did not weaken, did not strain their nervous activity and was evidently pleasant to them (since in studying the higher nervous activity by the conditioned-reflex method every stimulus was accompanied with food) clearly demonstrated that their physical well-being fully corresponded to their conditioned-reflex activity and to their general appearance and be-

haviour. In our experimental animals we were also able to observe both physiological and pathological senility as described by Professor Khalatov and other participants in the conference.

Naturally, premature senility of an organism cannot be attributed only to the influence of the nervous system and to psychical traumas. We have never thought of the higher nervous activity as an isolated activity of the cerebral cortex. The vegetative and endocrine systems, and also the cerebellar system (according to Academician L. A. Orbeli) which we have studied thoroughly in the laboratories of I. P. Pavlov and L. A. Orbeli, and which are closely linked in their activities with the cerebral cortex, also play their part. They are all closely interconnected and the cortex influences them just as much as they influence the cortex. Their activity is inseparable.

Bearing in mind the important role that the physiologic system of the connective tissue plays in the organism, it may be assumed that it is likewise closely interconnected with the cerebral cortex. Schizophrenia seems to illustrate this. Here, too, activity is evidently interdependent. The weakened cortex influences the physiologic system of the connective tissue, thereby affecting nutrition, and the latter, in its turn, influences the cortex. It is quite possible that as a result of the influence the cortex exerts on it, the vascular-connective tissue like the vegetative and endocrine systems, serves as a direct cause in the development both of cancer and other malignant growths and senescence, representing an important intermediate link in this closed chain of cause and effect which promotes premature senility. But, judging from our prolonged experiments, performed on young animals and on mice as well as on dogs, the main link and that which provides the first impetus for the action of all these interconnected systems, nevertheless seems to be the cerebral cortex.

According to Academician A. A. Bogomolets "both the age of an organism and its health are largely determined by the age and health of its connective tissue". "The fight for normal longevity should be a fight for healthy connective tissue", says Academician Bogomolets. To this should be added that the fight should be directed toward creating conditions making for the normal, correct functioning of

the cerebral cortex and the vegetative endocrine and cerebellar influences connected with it, for upon this depends correct metabolism and the normal functioning of all the systems, the vascular-connective tissue included, inasmuch as it represents an important intermediate link.

It has long been known that the nervous system plays a decisive role in the origin of pathological processes in the organism. Recently the most valuable experimental material on this subject has been obtained by Academician A. D. Speransky and his colleagues. This material indicates the leading role of the nervous system in the origin of pathological processes in the organism. But in studying this question all the experimentors, A. D. Speransky included, always inflicted organic injuries to the nervous system by surgical methods, whereas we inflicted merely functional injuries. We always affected the higher nervous activity (psychical activity, cerebral hemispheres) primarily by overstraining it and causing conflict between the principal nervous processes of the animal. We inflicted psychical rather than up physical traumas. While demonstrating the leading role of the cerebral cortex in the origin of pathological processes in the organism, and also of senility, our numerous experiments, extending over a period of many years, by no means preclude all the other factors upon which certain investigators insist (hereditary

predisposition, chronic irritation, changes in the vegetative centres, changes in metabolism, endocrinal influences, etc.). As seen from all the above, our view is that these factors are united. What do we really see in chronically induced (over a period of many years) "collapses" of nervous activity? Judging by the behaviour of our dogs, we are dealing here with the same constantly recurring psychic traumas. States of shock and the emotional outbursts that may frequently be observed in dogs when their nervous activity is overburdened, cause changes in the vegetative system, disturb the normal chemistry of the blood and thereby bring about changes in the excitability of the cortical cells, affecting the chemical and hormonal elements of metabol-

Phenomena connected with the lowering of the tonus of the entire organism, the initial cause of which are psychical traumas, are evidently of the most vital significance in the organism's predisposition to all kinds of disease, cancer included, and in the organism's premature senescence.

The statement A. A. Bogomolets made at the conference deserves the highest acclaim: "The process of senescence can be retarded by the sensible control of ones life. The first principle of this sensible control of life is work. The whole organism should work; it should exercize all its functions."

HOLDERS OF STALIN SCHOLARSHIPS

By I. Borovikov.

ON THE OCCASION of the sixtieth birthday of Joseph Stalin on December 21, 1939, the Soviet government instituted annual Stalin Scholarships to be awarded to the best students among undergraduates and postgraduates in the higher schools and research institutes of the Soviet Union.

The holders of these Scholarships for 1945 in the graduate schools of the Academy of Sciences include representatives of the various nationalities in the Soviet Union specializing in the most diverse fields of science.

Boris Petrov, holder of a Stalin Scholarship, was born in 1911 in Siberia. He was graduated from the Tomsk University in 1934 and received a Master's Degree in geology in 1938. When Nazi Germany attacked the Soviet Union Boris Petrov laid aside his research work and joined the army. He saw action on the Volkhov Front, where he received a serious wound. After being demobilized from the army, he returned to research work and is now working on a dissertation for a Ph. D. in the geology of Siberia.



Nuraniya Amirhanova.

Saradzhan Yusopova, holder of a Stalin Scholarship, is an Uzbek, born in Bukhara thirty years ago in the family of a farm labourer. She was graduated from the Department of Geochemistry at the Tashkent University in 1935 and received a Master's Degree in geology and mineralogy in 1939. In 1943 Saradzhan Yusopova came to Moscow to complete her dissertation for a Doctor's Degree in geology. She has already published twenty-nine research studies.

Nuraniya Amirhanova is a Tatar girl, formerly a worker at a Kazan factory. Later she entered and graduated from the Kazan University and is now studying in the graduate school of the Academy of Sciences. In addition to writing a dissertation for a Master's Degree in chemistry she is bringing up two children, Her husband is at the front.



Saradzhan Yusopova.



Boris Petrov.

ART AND LITERATURE

THE LATE ALEXEI TOLSTOY

By Alexander Drozdov

Notes

We will rebuild the world for good.

The Thorny Road.

1.

O NCE again death has visited the sanctum of our literature, and this time has struck down, in his very prime, one of the strongest, one of the kindest, one of the most vivid and talented personalities of Soviet letters. Alexei Nikolayevich Tolstoy is no more.

His passing has been the greatest blow to literature since the death of Gorky. He was a constant source of inspiration. In his proximity literature could not slumber.

2.

His talent was monumental. He towered over the valleys of life like a mountain, and from his eminence Tolstoy saw much and far. He was drawn towards vast canvases, towards muscular, full-blooded, dominating characters, towards heroic deeds, towards ideas putting an end to the ancient race of Adam and bringing into the world Man with a capital letter.

He said: "All interest lies in the future. We must rise from the worldly vanity of life to its summits, from the disfiguring masks that past conditions have imposed on people to the Man-Hero." Tolstoy was man of rare industry. He tirelessly dug into Russian history, ploughed up our modern land and with the vision of an artist fired by the ideas of his time perceived the fields of the future that would bring harvest in this land.

As an artist he had something of the quality of the knights of legend. But this mighty talent

did not spend itself in vain, merely with playing and amusing itself, although there were times when the power bubbling within him impelled him to such spending. "How many passions have been spilled in vain on sheets of paper", Tolstoy confessed. "There was a time when I would sit down to my desk like a man ready to be hypnotized. Here were pen, paper, cigarettes and a cup of coffee — let come what may. Sometimes something came, sometimes nothing, and after the third page I would begin drawing faces and thinking dark thoughts: might it not be better to find myself some office work to do?"

This, however, all faded away, together with his literary youth, with the fermentation of the vague spiritual forces, still unrecognized and still unsubordinated to reason, that surged within him. The time passed when he would suddenly be shaken by meaningless laughter, when the tears would suddenly well to his eyes for no reason at all, when his shoulder would suddenly begin to twitch. His vast talent, his cheerful, penetrating mind, became self-conscious, came to realize its possibilities, its already mature strength and its mission in a country that was building socialism.

His talent became dedicated to the purpose of serving the people, as all the most sincere, profound and selfless minds of our democratic literature, from Radishchev to Gorky, had done before. Since the time of Radishchev, Russian literature has been pointing the way to freedom, to all that is good and human. It has



ALEXEI TOLSTOY

been the conscience of the people, and all honest men in the West have recognized in Russian literature the herald of a better order of human society and the unmasker of evil.

Tolstoy grew to maturity as a writer at the meeting point of two epochs. To him was given the happiness of working in the years when his country entered the era of socialism, the era in which the working people, aware of their strength and purpose, swept the dust of feudal and capitalistic relations from their dwelling and undertook the building of a social life which was visibly and palpably just.

It must be remarked here that this new society was not the pink delight conceived by certain dreamers from the realm of Utopian Socialism. Communism is being built, as Lenin said, "out of mass human material, spoiled by hundreds and thousands of years of slavery, feudalism, capitalism, petty, unorganised economy, by a war against everyone for a place on the market, for a higher price for some commodity or for labour¹".

The great end shone ahead of us but the path that led to it was not a rosy one. This end required clear reason, a lofty soul and hands that were not afraid of hard work.

Endowed with a worldly talent, sober, loving life, being realistic to the marrow, Tolstoy saw and understood this end and did not close his eyes to the fact that it is a hard and painful thing for a man to kill within himself the evil heritage of the past. In his fancy this necessity was revealed to him as a thorny road that man had to travel for the sake of future good

Alexei Tolstoy turned to monumental, philosophical conceptions. He made the epic his principal style (we are referring here not to form, but to the spirit of his work). He strove for epic content in his stories, his plays and his novels. Even in his journalistic efforts, a field he frequently turned to during the war, we recognize the tread of an epic writer.

Among other journalistic collections there appeared his small book called *My Native Land*. It opens with a short article of the same title, written for a newspaper, an article meant to be read in passing during a pause in defence work in the rear or in the trenches. Yet this short article likewise contains the whole of Tolstoy with his comprehension of history and

modernity and their interconnections, with his responsiveness to the reactions of the whole people to the stern days of war, with his faith in the triumph of the Soviet people, a faith so vivid and strong that it is taken for knowledge.

The article was written at the end of 1941, in the grim days when the sun seemed blacked out by the wings of Messerschmitts. It quotes the Russian saying: "Never mind, we'll get the better of it!" From the pages of this article there emerges our ancestor "strong and bearded, in a long hempen shirt salted with perspiration". Shading his eyes with the palm of his hand he looks into the distance. And then there opens up before him—and before Tolstoy, and before us-the grandeur of the land on which the Russian state arose. Before his eyes pass the red shields of Igor, the ice of Lake Peipus, the activities of Ivan the Dread, the steps by which our state grew into a great power, the eighteenth century, our scientists, our writers, our whole people, who since the Revolution have become the masters of their land. Tolstoy spoke directly with the people in those dark days, helping them recall and feel the sources of their national strength, awaking their emotions in the war against the forces of fascism, which at that time were superior in strength of arms but inferior in strength of spirit. Even when writing for the newspapers he remained an epic writer, never losing his ardent patriotic and militant spirit.

The last statement should be remembered. Epic work is broad. It is not a narrow strip of life seen through a crack. It is a window flung open upon life. The whole picture of life, with its complex and painful contradictions in social phenomena, with its happiness and unhappiness, reason and feeling, a picture in which nothing is concealed or toned down, in which everything is revealed and flooded with light. Yet it is not a chaotic picture and not an impartial one, but a profoundly purposeful one in which, despite all the multiformity of nature, the general path is visible.

"I may be accused of an excessive leaning towards the epic style", wrote Tolstoy, "this is the result not of indifference, but of love, of life and of people."

It is touching to find such naive misgiving expressed by a great writer whose every word breathes with passion, all of whose works are

¹ V. I. Lenin. Collected Works, Vol. XXIII, p. 158, Russ. ed.

full of vivid, sometimes shricking colours, in which everything is bathed in stormy feeling.

I know no other modern writer who is so responsive to and so able to convey humour as was Tolstoy. I know no other writer with so rich a power of observation, a power that extended to all the senses — sight, hearing, touch, taste and smell. Tolstoy was genuinely vital, ever fresh, as though bathed in dew! He was attracted to the writing of epic works because he was gifted with the ability of seeing things on a majestic scale and knew that in his literary workshop he had paints enough for vast canvases. We can risk saying that Alexei Tolstoy created a special type of epic narrative in literature — one profoundly ideological in thought and passionately vivid in feeling.

2

The finest of his works was and remains the exhaustive social and psychological panorama of Russian life from 1914 to 1919 as presented in *The Thorny Path*. Many think that historical topics were Tolstoy's forte. This is not true. Tolstoy's banner and his glory is *The Thorny Path*.

Its subject is the people in the revolution. Everything is in movement, boiling and bubbling. The breakers of the national movement roar. Chaos? Anarchy? In very truth, what incandescent, tempestuous material! Here we find examples of supreme heroism, and drunken Makhno with his dissolute mistress, and modest Telegin whose civil and human honesty helps him stand firm through the storm, and fragile Dasha who is almost crushed under the heel of the Whiteguard reaction. Sanguinary pictures of war and pictures of Russian scenery, sometimes delicate, sometimes bursting with colour — the tranquility of the sky and the convulsions of the earth, heroism and treachery, brutality and love . . .

The second volume opens with the epigraph: "Drowned in water, bathed in blood, boiled in lye, we are cleaner than the clean."

Why cleaner? How? Like every great artist, Tolstoy was sincere. He has confessed that when he sat down to write an epic work he never foresaw the end. The gentle, lovable sisters felt stifled in the hothouse of pre-revolutionary Russia, and Tolstoy described their stiffling. They understood nothing in the revolution that overwhelmed the land, and Tolstoy

described their incomprehension. History spoke to him only in the voice of antiquity, ossified and immobile. His eyes were the eyes of an idealist. The Marxist conception of life was still alien to him. His talent surged, but it beat its wings against the walls of a cage in the belief that this cage marked the bounds of the world.

The revolution came and the earth shook under its tread. Yet it was not the earth that shook, but only the old world. It shuddered and fell to pieces and every man had to make the choice of either sliding down into historical non-existence together with the old world or seeking for a foot-hold on the Russian land, now cleansed by the storm of revolution. Tolstoy found foothold. It could not have been otherwise. He was the son of Russian literature and with his mother's milk he had imbided its national traditions. He could not do without the people. Without the people there was nowhere for him to go. When he began his second volume he already had an inkling of this. With the instinct of an artist rather than by the working of reason, he already guessed the end, and it is thanks to this that in the seeming chaos of an elementary upheaval he began to discern a lawful historical development of events. The sanguinary saturnalia of the Whiteguards, the inevitable cost of revolutionary action, the slime and stones cast up from the bottom of petty bourgeois life, no longer frightened him. "Drowned in water, bathed in blood and boiled in lye, we are cleaner than the clean."

The idea behind the revolution was revealed to him and he found order in the chaos.

The personal destinies of four characters cement the composition of the novel, this monumental succession of scenes so superbly written that you seem to be living life anew! There are supremely honest, modest Telegin, Roshchin, who has lost the way, but is strong in will power, and the sisters Dasha and Katya. These are by no means exceptional people. They are like thousands of others. But in each of them there is a seed of heroism. It is no wonder that in the end, after much aimless wandering and travail, each of them intertwines his or her personal destiny with the destiny of revolutionaries, with the destiny of the country that has told the world: "This is the way to live. All other paths are false, ours is the only true path." In each of these four people there is stuff that could have

been molded into a single full-blooded, noble and energetic character.

It was towards a character of this kind that Tolstoy, the writer, was drawn all through his life. In a brief scene in *The Thorny Path* he draws a portrait of Lenin. But what a portrait! In this scene Lenin becomes the centre of attraction, the symbolic supporting pillar of the whole epic work and its ideas, which suddenly, for a moment, assume the form of a human being invested with flesh and blood.

At that time Tolstoy did not yet consider himself sufficiently mature as a writer to portray Lenin. But this brief outline revealed his ambition of portraying Lenin as the ideal character of the epoch, as the best of the best, as the embodiment of the revolution. Truth to tell, there is nothing better in our literature as yet than this brief sketch of Lenin by Tolstoy, although many writers have bravely attempted the task. In his play The Road to Victory Tolstoy himself tried his hand at a new portrait of Lenin, but he, too, failed to come up to his old standard. The fascination that great characters held for him was the motivating factor of his unceasing creative quest. In these characters he saw the embodiment of great epochs. After Peter I he deliberately turned back to the present time and the description of outstanding figures of today. Toward the end of his life his talent knew no bounds. Even semidefeats became a thing unknown to him. Tolstoy would have done much had his life not been prematurely cut off.

Our critics will come back to the pages of The Thorny Path again and again, each time to make new discoveries, for so far only the surface has been discovered; the treasures beneath remain untouched. This epic work is wholly a product of our time. It is autobiographical not only because from Telegin and Roshchin we obtain an insight into the thoughts of Tolstoy himself, not only because through the veil of Dasha's fragile perception of the world we sometimes suddenly catch a glimpse of the author's own emotions. The work is autobiographical chiefly because in it the reader sees how the author's Bolshevik outlook, his philosophy, took shape, how he progressed on his path to Communism. In this respect The Thorny Path is a remarkable literary document which will never die. The citizen of a more perfect future society will always look back at it with the liveliest interest.

The same, by the way, may be said of all Tolstoy's work since the revolution. The life that Gogol saw was stagnant, was benumbed by the fishlike stare of Nikolai I. His novel The Dead Souls is the product of a fully formed and integral world outlook. The unsurpassed epic War and Peace came into being as a result of a stable view of history, of the role of the individual in the historical process, of the laws of social relationships. The Thorny Path was created by a writer who advanced towards Communism by his own complicated zig-zag, difficult path, squeezing the sugar water of idealism from himself drop by drop, erring, losing his way and always finding it again because he always possessed the most important factor: deep love of his people.

In this respect Alexei Tolstoy's works are more than masterpieces of literature. They are simultaneously documents of the transformation of a creative personality in the furnace of socialist revolution.

4.

This complex quality is also apparent in Peter I, Tolstoy's immortal historical novel written in the epoch of Socialism. This book has a special place in Tolstoy's biography.

The story of the writing of this novel is well known and critics have discussed in detail all the attempts of Tolstoy to analyze Peter I, first from the standpoint adopted in his story A Day in Peter's Life and then from the standpoint adopted in his story On the Rack. We also know of the various influences affecting Tolstoy's interpretation — voices of ancient historians, the whispering of the Slavophils, suggestive of the close atmosphere of little rooms permeated with the odour of lamp oil; the enthusiastic and vigilantly patriotic panegyric of Belinsky; the din of conflicting conceptions. The crossed swords struck a spark and the spark kindled thought. Despite his extraordinary talent, Klyuchevsky¹, who tore himself free of the tenets of bourgeois theories, still failed to reach the heights of the Marxist conception of the world. But he was endowed with a powerful mind, his knowledge was inexhaustible, and he spoke in the language of a scholar and artist. The sparks struck by the crossed swords also fell on barren soil covered with dried heather. Milyukov buried history as a living science and drove an aspen stake through the grave. He

¹ Klyuchevsky — famous Russian historian.

informed the world that it was impossible to establish any laws of historical movements.

All these conflicting influences are well known. Even in our modern science there were still many false roads that led to the gullies and the swamps. Pokrovsky¹ wrote harmfully, one-sidedly, thereby spoiling young scholars and writers. The vulgar criticism of the Russian Association of Proletarian Writers (RAPP) also distorted history and impeded the growth of literature. The more erroneous a conception, the more importunately, as we all know, do its advocates shout.

The second volume of Peter I was completed in 1934, the year in which Remarks on the Planning of Textbooks by Stalin, Kirov and Zhdanov appeared. These remarks came to mark the turning point in the development of our historical science. They helped Tolstoy both as a thinker and a writer.

Tolstoy's novel *Peter I* is already a classic and requires serious thought to be interpreted. These hasty notes, prompted by our fresh sense of the loss we have suffered, are not the place to touch upon this vast subject. Here we wish simply to contemplate the image of Tolstoy as it fills our hearts.

The more one ponders Tolstoy, the more one loves him, the less does the title of historical writer seem to fit him. A writer who is solely and chiefly a historical writer naturally shares the interests of his time as a citizen of a definite country, but his literary weapon is effective only at the distance of the centuries. His thinking is solely retrospective. He has no taste for contemporary material. He is the bard of the past, the bard of former glory. He seems to say to his contemporaries: you were not born under a bush, you are not fatherless or motherless, this is not the first time the grass grows on the earth, behind your back stand your grandfathers and great-grandfathers and it is their labour that has made you strong and allows you to advance to meet the new dawn. A literary talent that has an historical bent is a special talent, yet, for all its indisputable value, its horizons are confined. Alexei Tolstoy, however, was a universal artist and his historical talent was merely a component part of his powerful personality as a writer. He also wrote novels of adventure, for instance, invading a domain that is altogether apart, specific — and wrote powerfully, with bold, sweeping strokes and with evident enjoyment. He turned to history in order to gain a deeper insight into modernity, and once having learned to know modernity through his knowledge of the Russian character, he entered the vaults of history to gain a deeper insight into this character. His resort to history enriched him immensely: everything, history included, was to serve his final purpose — that of painting the portrait of the modern Soviet hero.

His final purpose explains the attraction he felt towards outstanding personalities in history, towards critical moments in our past life, towards men who personified the constructive will of the people. For this reason he was attracted to the epoch of Peter I. A writer of great talent cannot be merely an overnight guest in the world which he wishes to depict — and not merely to depict but to disclose the explosive power of its most advanced ideas. Tolstoy wrote about the time of Peter I as though he himself had clinked glasses with that tzar, as though he had sailed the Neva with him in an old, leaky boat and knocked piles into the wet Finnish soil, as though he had been at the walls of Narva and talked with the wretched Golikov, puffing a pipe filled with foreign tobacco. Tolstoy's creative reincarnation is unique. In writing about the people of the seventeenth century, he becomes one with them.

That is why he is the complete master in his novel! Yes, not a projection of modernity ("that would have been a false historical and anti-artistic method on my part"), but "a sense of the fullness, the 'unkempt' and creative force of life at that time, when the Russian character revealed itself particularly vividly."

Through the two and a half volumes of this novel (unfinished) it is easy to see the evolution of Peter I as a character who grows with the changing historical situation. But it is also easy to trace the evolution of Tolstoy's own historical ideas as he shook off the artful, dark promptings of false historians and firmly established himself on the heights of the Leninist-Stalinist historical outlook. What art! How sonorous the language, as though composed of undying

¹ Pokrovsky — Russian historian in 1910—1930.

tones polished by time! These tones do not merely speak, they sing! The existing chapters of the unfinished third volume, which Tolstoy wrote as long as his hand could still hold a pen, astonished even those who were astonished before and could not believe that any talent could rise to still greater heights, could see still farther.

With Tolstoy already lying on his sickbed, we witnessed how the Leninist-Stalinist historical outlook enlightened Tolstoy's mind and liberated the forces of his talent. Having attained to the truth, he produced the best that art is capable of.

While busy with Peter I in the course of his search for the "secret" of the Russian character, while depicting Peter's empire which strengthened the historically progressive feudal-absolutist state of the eighteenth century, Tolstoy saw that there was no stopping with this epoch. In following the roots, he penetrated deeper and deeper into history, going back to the time when Russia first took shape as a centralized state. What people did this period produce? What changes marked it? What sort of characters built it? That was the time when Ivan IV laboured so furiously, Ivan IV - stern and hotheaded, overbearing and ambitious eign, the finest mind in Europe at the time, the tzar whom the people called the Dread so as to strike fear into the hearts of the enemies of his cause, both within and without the country. While working on Peter I Tolstoy turned to Ivan the Dread and wrote two dramatic narratives that are now famous. This was quite natural and even inevitable. Had fate granted him a longer life he would, I think, have looked back as well to the time of Ivan III, who gathered together the Russian lands.

Thus, in his study of history, Tolstoy sought and found the "secret" of the Russian character, which grew mature in the process of building its state. He unravelled from history the golden thread of the traditions of the people, who always aspired toward the good, the just, the true, who moved ever forward towards a better order of life for men on earth. In listing in his autobiography the historical periods that interested him, Tolstoy wrote: "And, at the end, our own — the present period — unprecedented in scale and importance. But this is a theme I shall handle in the future."

It was not to be, and in this lies our inconsolable grief: The creation of an outstanding hero of the Soviet period, for which Tolstoy prepared himself by years of fine work, has not taken place. Inwardly he was all ready for it: his emotions, his understanding, his skill were in the fullest harmony. Although already stricken by disease, he wrote like a spiritual giant, with all his.innate thirst for impressions, with all his colossal moral health, wrote richly, inexhaustibly, freely, prolifically, passionately, humorously, cleverly. His talent seemed to have broken all the dams that stood in its way and overrun the valleys of our literature in a mighty floodtide. Did he ever suspect that early death might stop the onrush of this tide? We, who already knew that the end was imminent did not believe it! Not a single line of his bore the slightest trace of waning power. Every new line was fresher and more beautiful than the line before. So it continued to the last line he ever wrote.

5.

No one who knew him well can ever forget his ponderous, slightly awkward figure, his broad brow, his piercing and seemingly angry eyes and the amiable fold at the corners of his lips. He spoke about everything both jestingly and seriously at the same time, whether he were telling about the barricades in Madrid among which, with fascist planes flying above him, he recalled Moscow, or about some trifle that, because he was ever exceptionally observant, had struck him. He was a brilliant person, a rich personality, in whom heart, mind and a keen sense of humor lived together in harmony, rising to the surface by turn. Sometimes some profound thought would flash out, sometimes a jest, and sometimes either of these two would suddenly reveal the secret working of his heart.

Although he told his stories haltingly, they were always marvellous, shot through and through with colourful words that were as though taken out of the sacred coffer of Russian speech. One could listen to him from sunrise to sunset and listening, think: "What a magician! What a way he has with words!"

In his article My Native Land he wrote about the Russian at the time of the emergence of the Russian state:

"The graves of his fathers and grandfathers grew and multiplied about him, and the people he belonged to grew and multiplied. He wove the invisible net of the Russian language into a marvellous pattern—bright as a rainbow after a spring shower, straight as an arrow, tender as a lullaby, melodious and rich. He gave all things a name and sang the glories of his labour. And the slumbering world, which he caught in his magic net of words, submitted to him like a broken colt and became his property, and for his descendants it became their native land—the land of their forefathers."

This language conceived by the people, was Tolstoy's gift, his second nature, the very fibre of his being. As sugar melts in water, so was the Russian language mingled with his blood. There can be no literature without gifted words. The writer who lacks words with which to express himself stifles the very images he strives to create, and they slide over the reader's soul like dead shadows, slipping past without leaving the slightest impression. Without Tolstoy's command of words there would not have been any Tolstoy literature Rich in imagery as his creative thinking was, had he been unable to clothe it in words, this wealth would never have reached the people.

In all his work Tolstoy preached: learn the language, listen to it, cultivate it and care for it, watch its life, its passage from generation to generation, its vital changes, the turns it takes, the play of its meaning. He attained genuine perfection both in the democratic aspirations that marked all his activities and in his style of language.

Tolstoy's unsurpassed style died with him. It cannot be imitated, for Tolstoy tempered it in the furnace of his exceptionally original and therefore inimitable talent. The world of images, which he captured in his "magic net of words" submitted to him. Through the medium of the pictures he painted in his epical works, great and small, Tolstoy glorified the man of our land who has never bowed his head to alien, would-be, conquerors.

Tolstoy attached great importance to the development of cultural relations between his own people and the peoples of other freedom-loving countries. He contributed much towards strengthening the ties between Soviet Russian literature and foreign literature. As Chairman of the VOKS Literary Section he took active part in its work, conducted the Section's correspondence with foreign writers and exchanged literary material with them.

Tolstoy has died on the eve of victory. Her sunny face was still screened from him by the smoke of the last battles. He died like a marshal of Soviet literature, with arms in hand, straining forward to those fires of freedom which burn ahead, offering their warmth and their light to all mankind. For, as Tolstoy said: "We shall rebuild the world for good."

NOTES FOR THE THIRD PART OF THE NOVEL PETER I

By Ludmilla Tolstoy

TLLNESS and death prevented Alexei Niko-**L** layevich Tolstoy from completing the third and final part of his novel Peter I. Alexei Nikolayevich unfortunately never had the habit of writing out a general plan or of making notes and drafts for a contemplated work. He carried the whole conception in his mind, writing one chapter after another and polishing each one to perfection separately. Tolstoy's salient characteristic — his absolute intolerance of slovenliness, of leaving things unfinished or postponing them for "afterwards" - was expressed in his methods of creative work. With all the tenacity and intensity of his energetic temperament he strove to find the most concrete and immediate embodiment of the conception in his mind.

Although Alexei Nikolayevich vas very undemonstrative he nevertheless was a person of very deep emotions when matters concerned what he considered most valuable and important. He almost never talked about what he planned to write, as he was convinced that he would not be able to write about something that he had previously discussed in detail. He maintained that if you once live through what you want to create in your writings there will be nothing left but "charred stumps" — the mood cannot be recaptured.

The final part of *Peter I* is an exception to the foregoing. Long before the end, his illness had complicated and interrupted his work. The novel had so ripened in his mind and so filled his every thought that it seemed as though its characters were living their own lives somewhere beside him, that their lives were unfolding before his eyes and that he needed only time and strength to depict what was happening around him. When Alexei Nikolayevich was unable to write, he sometimes mused aloud about what he would include in the coming chapters

(but never about how he would write them). Besides brief, fragmentary drafts of the chapters already written his notebook contains a list of names, separate words, expressions, folk sayings, and the following entry "Chapter Six 1) Peter in Yuriev. 2) The Taking of Narva. 3) Countess Kozelskaya and Menshikov. Chapter Seven, Sanka in Paris. Chapter Eight, Christmas holidays in Moscow.

"Golikov paints a portrait." (The last words are crossed out.)

Alexei Nikolayevich began to write the sixth chapter in the second half of November and thought that he would include the arrival of Countess Kozelskaya and Catherine's visit to Peter in this chapter. But after finishing the episode of the taking of Narva he decided to write a separate chapter, the seventh, about how Countess Kozelskaya disguised as a man, arrives at Peter's camp as an envoy from August in the hope of becoming Peter's mistress and how her plans are frustrated by Menshikov who himself succumbed to the lady's charms. Alexei Nikolayevich included Catherine's visit in this chapter. The eighth chapter is about Sanka in Paris. Then comes the ninth — Christmas in Moscow, the love story of Gavril Brovkin and Tsarevna Natalya, Alexei Nikolayevich had a warm spot in his heart for Natalya, Peter's favourite sister. She resembled Peter both in character and appearance and from the little that is known of her life she must have been a woman of some education. She knew several languages, translated a great deal and also wrote for the theatre. In Alexei Nikolayevich's opinion it was she who laid the foundation of the Russian theatre. Her affair with Broykin has no ground in actual fact but Alexei Nikolayevich wanted to give his heroine an opportunity to taste ardent, pure young love. He looked forward with eagerness and joy to writing about Christmas in Moscow. He wanted to steep himself in the lavish, full-blooded Russian life of the period, the life that was his native element. "Oh, what I won't do when I come to that chapter!" he often said.

He regarded the chapter about Sanka in Paris as a very difficult one to write, but he felt that he was getting into the proper mood for it. He wanted it to be sudden and dazzling. Further came plans for chapters about the founding of the Admiralty. Alexei Nikolayevich was very much interested in the Swedes' last attack upon St. Petersburg, when Tolbukhin repulsed them at Kronstadt. One might think that Alexei Nikolayevich regarded this episode as highly characteristic of the Russians, their boldness, valour and courage. But when I would ask

him what he really saw in this episode, Alexei Nikolayevich would always say: "Wait until I write it, then you'll see . . ."

During his trip to Leningrad and Kronstadt last spring Alexei Nikolayevich made a point of going to see the site of the battle where Tolbukhin repulsed the Swedes. Alexei Nikolayevich also planned to include the Bulavin uprising in the novel.

It was his intention to conclude the novel either with the Battle of Poltava or the

Prut campaign.

In one of his last letters written in November 1944 Alexei Nikolayevich wrote: "I want to bring the novel up to the Battle of Poltava, perhaps to the Prut campaign—I'm not sure yet. I don't want the people in it to grow old. What shall I do with them when they grow old?"...

CABLES OF CONDOLENCE

Received on the Occasion of the Death of Alexei Tolstoy from Writers and Organizations Abroad.

Deplore equally loss Tolstoy international literature.

Wells

Deeply regreat to learn of passing of Alexei Nikolayevich Tolstoy who so ably carried on the name of his grand ancestor.

Theodore Dreiser

Prière transmettre union des Ecrivains Français sentiments deuil profond Ecrivains français pour mort Alexis Tolstoï.

Louis Aragon

I am filled with deep sorrow at the loss that has befallen Soviet writers in the death of such a splendid comrade as Alexei Tolstoy. I treasure the memory of his visit to Prague and feel that the writers of Czechoslovakia have lost a great friend.

Franticek Langer

Let me transmit to you my deep condolence on loss prominent Soviet Writer Alexei Nikolayevich Tolstoy.

Mao Tse Tung

The SCR Writers Group learn with deep regret of the death of the great writer Alexei Tolstoy his death will be mourned by writers everywhere.

J. B. Priestley signed for the Committee

Profoundly regret passing of Alexei Tolstoy inspiring personality and highly gifted author.

Herman Ould International Secretary PENN All who recognize great literature as one of the supports of civilization will deeply regret the death of Alexei Tolstoy stop Writers Warboard and Pen Club sending cables his loss especially felt by those of us working for American Soviet friendship and understanding.

Corliss Lamont
Chairman National Council of American
Soviet Friendship

E. M. Forster wishes his deep sympathy to be conveyed to Literary Section VOKS on the loss of its Chairman the great writer Alexei Tolstoy—

Jackson Secretary SCR Writers Group

Australian writers mourn great loss to International literature by death Alexei Tolstoy.

Katharine Prichard

El Instituto Colombo - Soviético lamenta profundamente el fallecimiento del illustre escritor e incansable luchador antifacista Alexis Tolstoy, que considera como una perdida irreparable para la cultura universal y cuyo recuerdo perdurará como ejemplo de escritor leal a la cause de los pueblos libres.

> Hernán Echavarría Presidenté

Hollywood writers mobilization sends deepest regrets concerning death of Alexei Nikolayevich Tolstoy this distinguished Russian writer well known and sincerely respected in United States his vivid reporting of outrages of Hitlerite fascists made indelible impression here his trilogy ending with quote gloomy morning unquote regarded here as contribution to world literature.

Emmet Lavery chairman mobilization Hollywood writers

Only today received your telegram stop news about death of Alexei Nikolayevich Tolstoy filled me with great sorrow stop by his death that which is immortal in man becomes clear stop I shall always retain vividly in my memory our meetings in Moscow, Paris and Madrid stop from his works innumerable in and outside the Soviet Union learned from what roots the Russian people sprang and why Tsaritsin became Stalingrad stop death of Tolstoy has struck deeply into my heart stop I share with you the sorrow which you feel at this great loss.

Anna Seghers

With Alexei Tolstoy lost champion defending human enlightenment which task every literary work stop lets close antifascist ranks enabling wounded peoples rise after victory

Arnold Zweig

Letters were received from the British, French, Chinese and Ethiopian Embassies in Moscow.

ARMENIAN, GEORGIAN AND AZERBAIJAN MUSIC

By D. Zhitomirsky
Impressions of a Recent Festival

THE FIRST Soviet festival of national art was held in Moscow in 1936. At that time Moscow audiences had their first opportunity to hear the opera performances of the newly founded Kazakh Musical Theatre. These performances showed us a theatre which we had heretofore known only by hearsay. Ever since then such festivals of national art have become an established tradition of Soviet musical life, one of the most important means of promoting the development of music among the various nationalities of the U. S. S. R.

From 1936 to 1941 Moscow has heard festivals devoted to the music of the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kirghizia, Tajikistan, Turkmenia, Buryat-Mongolia, and Uzbekistan. During wartime it became expedient to hold these festivals in the capitals of the various national republics. At the beginning of 1944 a music festival of the Central Asian republics was held in Tashkent, the capital of Uzbekistan. In December of that same year a review of Soviet music by composers of the Transcaucasian republics was held in Tbilisi, the capital of Georgia.

This was undoubtedly one of the largest reviews of Soviet music vet held. Each of the three Transcaucasian republics (Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan) was represented by its own symphony orchestra of approximately one hundred musicians, by several large choral, instrumental and concerts ensembles, by opera and concert singers as well as by many pianists, violinists and performers on other musical instruments. In addition to the representatives from the Committee on Arts, guests of the festival included Reinhold Gliere, Yuri Shaporin, Sergei Vasilenko, Victor Biely and other composers representing the Union of Soviet Composers. Many Moscow music critics were also present.

The review was held in the Tbilisi Opera House. Despite its size, the building was unable to accommodate all those desiring to attend the performances. Crowds thronged the entrance every night in the hope of securing tickets at the last minute.

The programme included twelve concerts, practically all consisting of new compositions. Both in abundance and interest this material would easily suffice for several concert seasons. There was so much that was new and interesting that we regretted having no time to analyze in detail that which we found most impressive. This very abundance of impressions, however, gave us an opportunity to appreciate the scope of musical activity in the Transcaucasus.

In former years operas and national song and dance ensembles were the central item of interest in such festivals. Now, however, interest and emphasis have shifted to symphony and chamber music, a fact highly indicative of the changes that have occurred in the intervening years.

There is no doubt that we are now witnessing a musical development of great historical significance. New schools of music, stemming from the national folk art of Azerbaijan, Georgia and Armenia are now appearing in these republics. They follow lines of European culture but are based on forms born of the people themselves. The music of the Transcaucasus is entering a new phase of cultural maturity.

CONCERTS OF ARMENIAN MUSIC.

The first large review of Armenian music was held in Moscow in 1939. Even at that early date Armenian music showed itself to have achieved one of the highest levels of development among the peoples of the U. S. S. R. This maturity was expressed in a

truly professional spirit, a mastery of technique and refinement of taste. The most talented Armenian composers combined a strikingly original, national style with the finest characteristics of European music.

In amazingly short time Armenia achieved professional maturity expressing itself in the

most modern European idiom.

In the music of Comitas (one of the founders of modern Armenian music who at the beginning of the century became known for his arrangements of Armenian folk music) Armenian folk melodies were transformed into brilliantly polished miniatures of exquisite harmony. Parisian music lovers—the contemporaries of Debussy and Ravel—were delighted with his music.

The appearance of the opera *Almast* in 1916 showed Spendiarov to be one of the finest opera composers in Armenia and a brilliant follower of his teacher Rimsky-

Korsakov.

The most important of contemporary Armenian composers is Aram Khachaturyan. Khachaturyan's highly original and vivid musical idiom combines Eastern folklore with contemporary European harmonic and orchestral style. The combination of these two factors has enabled Khachaturyan to emerge as a composer of major importance at the very outset of his career.

Naturally the lion's share of success in this review fell to Khachaturyan. Though his second symphony is not new to Moscow audiences, this was its first performance in Tbilisi. The stormy applause which filled the theatre was in perfect keeping with the

spirit of the symphony.

Khachaturyan is indebted to the Armenian conductor Mikhail Tavrizyan for much of the success that attended this performance of his symphony. The gifted conductor succeeded in introducing a singular delicacy of execution into the performance.

We are accustomed to hear and judge Khachaturyan's music against a background of the finest works of Soviet music. It was therefore very gratifying to note that when heard in a program of all Armenian music Khachaturyan's symphony did not present a sharp contrast to the general level of development. This is the best proof that Khachaturyan's creative maturity reflects not only his own personal growth but also the progress made by the whole Armenian school.

One of the finest composers represented in the Armenian program was Grigori Egiazaryan. In his symphonic poem Armenia he shows himself to be not only an outstanding exponent of the national school but also a composer with an individual and original feeling for orchestration. While broad decorative forms predominate in Khachaturyan's music, Egiazaryan is more inclined to delicate, finely-wrought symphonic effects. Everything he has written bears the imprint of a refined taste and broad education. In addition to the symphonic poem already noted, the program also included the first movement of his new violin concerto.

The style of Ara Stepanyan, another outstanding Armenian composer, is very original and in many ways the exact opposite of Khachaturyan's. He is an artist of the utmost restraint, averse to any affectation, intent and thoughtful in selecting his mediums of expression. We had known Stepanyan as a composer of excellent chamber music. At the festival we had an opportunity to hear his first symphony, a work marked

by profound and noble conceptions.

Among the most impressive symphonic works in the Armenian program were those by young composers—Arno Babadzhanyan's piano concerto, Alexander Arutyunyan's overture and Eduard Mirzoyan's poem To the Heroes of the War. These compositions still contain technical shortcomings but they are compensated for by the vigour and spontaneity of the music. In these young composers we see the brilliant promise of the new generation of Armenian music.

The Armenian concerts were the most varied in respect to genre and forms of professional musical art. In addition to very interesting numbers of the folklore type, performed by the Ensemble of Armenian Gusyan Songs and the Armenian Ensemble of Armenian Songs and Dances, the program also included a performance by the Armenian Jazz Orchestra. The repertory of the Jazz Orchestra contains a number of works in the national vein, arranged in modern jazz forms with extreme ingenuity and skill.

There were also many interesting chamber compositions. Mention should be made of Aro Stepanyan's new songs (Songs of Alagyaza and a cycle of old Oriental miniatures) and of new compositions by Serge Aslamadzyan, already known for his splendid quartets. This latter composer was represent-

ed at the festival by arrangements of Armenian folk songs and variations on a theme by Paganini. Another interesting item of the program was the piano concerto of the talented young composer Gayane Chebotaryan, a pupil of Prof. Christopher Kushnarey.

All of these compositions are distinguished for their excellent taste and their minute perfection of detail. These same traits are also shared by the best Armenian executants. The Soviet musical world is justly proud of such singers as Anush Danielyan, Tatevik Sazandaryan and Lydia Avetisyan and such ensembles as the Comitas Quartet (Avet Gabrielyan, Nikita Balabanyan, Mikhail Teryan and Serge Aslamadzyan).

CONCERTS OF GEORGIAN MUSIC.

Georgian music also has traditions that go far back into the past. Close contact with the great masters of the Russian school long ago set Georgian composers on the firm ground of professionalism. It will suffice, in this connection, to recall Ippolitov-Ivanov's work in Tbilisi in the 1880's, Zakhary Paliashvili's studies with Taneyev in Moscow, and Meliton Balanchivadze's studies with Rimsky-Korsakov in St. Petersburg.

The first composers to contribute to the creation of a Georgian national style were Paliashvili and his outstanding contemporaries (M. Balanchivadze, D. Arakishvili and others). They succeeded in creating genuinely classical works of national music. One of the finest of these early works was Paliashvili's inspired opera Abesalom and Eteri, which has won recognition in many countries outside its native Georgia.

For many years the work of Georgian composers developed principally in the field of opera and choral compositions. These genres predominated in the festival of Georgian music held in Moscow in 1937 (performances of Paliashvili's operas Abesalom and Eteri and Daisi, M. Balanchivadze's opera The Cunning Daderzhan and the musical comedy Keto and Koteh by D. Dolidze).

The years that have elapsed since then have been marked by rapid progress in developing Georgian symphonic music. Grigori Kiladze has won popularity with his symphonic poem *Gandechili*, based on the poem *The Hermit* by Ilya Chavchavadze. Other works which have won recognition during

this period are the symphonic poem Zviadauri by Shalva Mshvelidze and a symphonic poem by Andrei Balanchivadze, who has also written a piano concerto and the ballet The Heart of the Mountains. Grigori Kiladze and Shalva Mshvelidze have won Stalin Prizes for their compositions.

Contemporary Georgian music is based on the harmonies and form of expression inherent in Georgian folk art. Credit must be given to contemporary Georgian composers of symphonic music for the confidence and determination with which they draw on national sources for their material and style, much in the same way that this was done by the founders of Russian symphonic mutime. This their applies of all to Grigori Kiladze and Shalva Mshvelidze. New symphonies by these two composers were performed at the festival. Both works, austere in tone and majestic in scope, made a very strong impression.

In Kiladze's Heroic Symphony this impression was heightened by the broad architectural structure of the symphony and, if it may be so expressed, by the "enduring workmanship" which is so characteristic of Georgian music in general. Mshvelidze's second symphony gratifies the listener with the abundance and vigour of its musical-thematic material. Since the appearance of his symphonic poem Zviadauri, Mshvelidze has persistently perfected his technique in composing large forms. This second symphony unquestionably marks a new phase in the composer's career. Despite the unmistakable progress already made, criticism was levelled against Mshvelidze and other representatives of the young Georgian school for certain shortcomings in form. The critics pointed out that Mshvelidze lacked the art of "symphonic dramaturgy", i. e. the ability to carry a single idea through a large musical "act", from beginning to end.

This criticism may be applied in part to Iona Tuskiya's violin concerto, which is interesting in content and original in style. The program also included this composer's poem *Stalin* for symphony orchestra, chorus and soloists.

A different line of development within the Georgian symphonic school is represented by the works of Andrei Balanchivadze, a composer of striking gifts who has won wide popularity with his ballet *The Heart of the Mountains* and his opera *Happiness*. In respect to

intellectual scope and external impressiveness his scores are perhaps on a slightly lower level than those of other modern Georgian composers. Balanchivadze, however, invariably charms his listeners with the poesy of his music, his appreciation of his native landscape and of the poetic atmosphere of his country. Balanchivadze's new symphony is unquestionably one of the best things he has yet written.

Mention must also be made of David Toradze's symphonic dance *Holiday Celebra*tions, Olga Baramishvili's vocal-symphonic cycle on war themes and Alexei Machavariani's piano concerto. All three of these works are written in a colourful, romantic vein and show the composers' wide range of musical interests.

Despite the strain of such an extensive program, the Tbilisi Symphony Orchestra brilliantly coped with the demands made upon it. The scores scheduled for performance at the festival were carefully rehearsed by conductors I. Azmaiparashvili, A. Gaduk and the brilliant young conductor Odysseus Dmitriadi.

Relatively little place was accorded chamber music in the Georgian concerts. The most mature works in this genre are those of Shalva Taktatashvili, a young composer who has written a trio (violin, cello and piano) and a number of solo instrumental pieces.

In the concert of folk music the strongest impression, as usual, was made by performances of the Georgian choral ensembles (the State Folk Song and Dance Ensemble, the Kartolino-Kakhetinsky Chorus and the Ensemble of Changur Players).

CONCERTS OF AZERBAIJAN MUSIC.

The progress made by Azerbaijan music cannot be fully appreciated without a know-

ledge of its recent past.

Conditions were unfavorable for the development of music in pre-revolutionary Azerbaijan. One of the factors hampering its progress was the divergence between Oriental and European musical forms. The application of a modern system of harmony to Azerbaijan music was extremely difficult, since the music of Azerbaijan stubbornly adhered to ancient Oriental harmonies. In none of the other republics did this represent such a problem.

There were also social factors involved, in particular the religious prejudices of the Moslems who severely persecuted the first pioneers in Europeanising Azerbaijan music.

When the first Azerbaijan opera (Leila and Mejnun) was staged in 1908 through the efforts of several enthusiasts headed by the now famous Uzeir Gadzhibekov, the members of the cast still had no knowledge of notes, but sang and played by ear, improvising as they went along. Feminine roles in this and other performances were played by men¹. All the roles, moreover, were sung in coloratura in conformity with the traditions of the folk bards. The normal pitch of male voices, accepted in European singing, seemed comical to Azerbaijan audiences.

For a long time Azerbaijan music kept to the path of conservatism and provincial immaturity. All the more astonishing therefore were the excellent opera performances given at the festival of Azerbaijan music in Moscow in 1938. It was particularly gratifying to note the steady creative progress made by Uzeir Gadzhibekov (composer of the opera Ker-Ogly) to whom most of the credit is due for building up contemporary Azerbaijan music.

While noting the republic's achievements in opera and folk music at that time, we failed to see a single Azerbaijan composer who had even an elementary mastery of the technique of composition. At the Tbilisi review, however, there was already a whole group of young Azerbaijan composers who boldly and confidently expressed their ideas in the lan-

guage of symphonic music.

Most noteworthy among these young composers are Kara Karayeva, Soltan Gadzhibekov and Dovzhet Gadzhiev. All of them are still students at the conservatory but their scores already show a thorough knowledge of musical technique and a broad range of creative thought. Eighteen-year-old Elsa Mailyan, whose *Heroic Overture* was performed at the review, is one of the most promising of the young composers. We also heard a new symphonic poem and two symphonic studies by the well-known Azerbaijan composer and conductor Niazi Tagizade.

¹ The Moslem religion not only forbade women to take part in theatrical performances but even to attend them. The well known Azerbaijan singer Khanum Mamedova, now a People's Artiste, almost paid with her life for her attempt to appear on the concert stage. Only by fleeing from Baku did she escape the vengeance of religious fanatics.

It must be remembered that this is only the "first harvest" of symphony music in Azerbaijan, The youth of these Azerbaijan composers is evident both in the insufficient development of the national-stylistic aspect of their work and in their insufficient technical mastery. But these are the faults of youth and this very youth holds out splendid promise for the future. We are sure of this promise because, first of all, there are many talented musicians among this group who are rapidly mastering the technique of composition. It is very significant that these composers are broadening the scope of their national music and enriching it with the forms of Russian and Western European music.

The old folk forms of Azerbaijan still retain their significance, however. These forms are as popular as ever with the music lovers of Azerbaijan, I was convinced of this when I visited Baku, the capital of Azerbaijan, on my way back to Moscow and attended performances at the local opera house. The house draws the largest audiences on the nights when operas of a folk type are performed with a cast of native bards who improvise as they sing. At a performance of Shah Ismaid by Magomayev (one of the first Azerbaijan operas, a favourite for the last twenty years), I noted the ovations tendered the soloist when he made his entrance on the stage and after each aria. The soloist was Saykov, a brilliant performer of traditional Azerbaijan folk melodies.

The leading role in the development of national forms in Azerbaijan music is still being played by Uzeir Gadzhibekov. The program at the festival included many of his new

songs, among which were some on war themes. In his speech at the conference concluding the festival Uzeir Gadzhibekov spoke about the interesting theoretical work he is now doing. His book on harmonies in Azerbaijan music, which is to be published shortly, will be a valuable source of information about national Azerbaijan music.

Azerbaijan was represented at the festival by a symphony orchestra, ensembles, and outstanding singers of the opera and concert stages. We heard performances by the famous Azerbaijan singers Byul-Byul Mamedov and Gadzhibekov. The young Baku symphony conductors Afrasyab Badalbeili, Ashraf Gasanov and Niazi Tagizade made an excellent impression on the audience.

One of the most interesting aspects of the festival was the two-day conference which followed the performances. This conference discussed numerous problems connected with the various tendencies in the development of music in the Transcaucasus. Interesting arguments arose around the problem of innovations in national music, the right of the composer to extend and enrich the scope of his national culture, the "revolutionary" and "evolutionary" paths of development of this culture. Naturally these and other theoretical problems were not solved at the conference. The posing of these problems, however, and their discussion gave form and direction to the composer's quests. In this lies the essential significance of the festival, one which undoubtedly was and will remain a landmark in the development of Armenian, Georgian and Azerbaijan music.

MODERN FRENCH HISTORY AS INTERPRETED BY RUSSIAN HISTORIANS

By A. Molok
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THE HISTORY of France, especially of modern France, has always interested Russian scholars. This is explained in the first place by the fact that beginning with the middle of the eighteenth century and for more than a hundred years after that, France played a leading role in the history of advanced social thought, literature and culture in Europe. It is explained in the second place by the exceptionally tempestuous nature of the sociological and political development of France which between the end of the 18th century and 1871 experienced five revolutions. This exerted a tremendous influence on the political struggle in the other countries of Europe, especially in Russia, which from the middle of the 19th century advanced towards revolution with giant steps. And it is explained in the third place by the fact that the Patriotic War of the Russian people against the Napoleonic invasion (1812) naturally evoked a lively interest in the history of modern France.

During and following the Soviet Revolution, interest in the French Revolution became particularly marked among the young generation engaging in historical research. The new regime armed the historians of our country with the most advanced scientific method—the method of Marxism-Leninism—and created exceptionally favourable conditions for their work.

I.

Modern French history opens with the crisis and fall of the feudal-absolutist monarchy and the establishment of a bourgeois-democratic system as a result of the bourgeois revolution that took place at the end of the eighteenth century. The decadence of the old monarchy began under Louis XIV: in his reign French absolutism reached its zenith and in his reign, its decline began. It was to the long reign of this king that the late A. Savin (1873—1923) (Professor of the Moscow University known for his valuable studies on the history of England) dedicated one of his books. This interesting book appeared in 1930 under the title of *The Age of Louis XIV*. It is written in the vivid style of all Savin's works and certainly merits inclusion in any review of the works of Russian scholars on modern French history.

Professor P. Ardashev (1865), another well-known Russian historian, has devoted himself to a study of the political regime in France before the revolution. He has written a study in two volumes called Provincial Administration in France Towards the End of the Old Regime: Provincial Intendants (Vol. I, written and published 1900-1906). The value of this book, which is based on extensive documental material, is diminished by the author's reactionary position and his defence of France's pre-revolutionary bureaucratic system. The second volume of Ardashev's book-Les Intendants de Province sous Louis XIVappeared in 1909 in French. French critics praised it highly.

The question of agrarian relationships on the eve of and during the French revolution has been given an important place in the study made of the history of 18th century France by Russian scholars. A number of voluminous works by such outstanding historians as N. Kareyev (1850—1931), I. Louchitsky (1845—1918) and M. Kovalevsky (1851—1916) have been devoted to this question. The importance of the agrarian question for Russia, where the agrarian-peasant movement steadily grew from the beginning of the twentieth century right up to the Soviet Revolution, promoted the interest of these scholars in the agrarian question in pre-revolutionary France.

N. Kareyev's dissertation—The Peasants and the Peasant Question in the Last Quarter of the Eighteenth Century — was published in 1879. Kareyev succeeded in obtaining interesting material for his subject. He presented a detailed description of the condition of the French peasantry on the eve of the revolution of 1789, its differentiation into separate groups (before him very little attention had been paid to this point), and also of agrarian legislation during the revolution.

This book was a great success in Western Europe as well as in Russia, At the suggestion of the famous French historian. Fustel de Coulanges, Karevey wrote a brief summary of his book in French. Fustel de Coulange made a report about it in the French Academy of Sciences and it was then published in the Transactions of the Academy¹. Alfred Maury, the Director of the French National Archives, who knew Russian, published a review of Kareyev's book in one of the French scientific journals. Maury wrote: "The author was not afraid to undertake a task never tackled by the French; in his book the subject was examined most comprehensively, with the greatest attention . . . and Frenchmen can learn much from it2."

Karl Marx likewise praised Kareyev's book (in a letter to M. Kovalevsky)³. In 1899 it was published in French. Subsequently Kareyev wrote many other books on the history of the French bourgeois revolution at the end of the 18th century. Kareyev devoted a large part of the third volume and two chapters of the fourth volume of his famous seven-volume work — *Modern History of Western Europe* to this important event in European and world history. In 1912—1914 Kareyev published the

protocols of the Parisian regions and their revolutionary committees, which he himself discovered in the archives. They had never been published before.

Historiographic essays and critical notes occupy a large place in Kareyev's writings. Kareyev regularly acquainted Russian readers with new works by Russian and French scholars on the history of the French Revolution. In a series of articles published in French in the journals La Révolution Française, 1902, 1912 and 1913, and Bulletin de la Société d'Histoire Moderne, 1912, Kareyev acquainted French readers with the achievements of Russian researches in this same field. In the last few years of his life he published a book on Historians of the French Revolution (1924—1925) in three volumes.

As a professor at the University of St. Petersburg, Kareyev founded his own scientific school. His pupils (I. Popov-Lensky, V. Biryukovich, P. Shchegolev and others) engaged primarily in the study of the ideological and economic history of France at the end of the 18th century.

The works of I. Louchitsky, professor at the Kiev, and at one time at the Petrograd University, represent a great contribution to historical knowledge. Prof. Louchitsky has thrown much light on the question of agrarian relationships in France at the end of the 18th century. His book — Peasant Agriculture in France on the Eve of the Revolution (Primarily in Limousin) — appeared in 1900. This is the first book in which use is made of such valuable sources of information as tax lists, cadastres and land survey lists. Another important book by Louchitsky — Condition of the Agricultural Classes in France on the Eve of the Revolution and the Agrarian Reform of 1789—1793 — appeared in 1912.

A vital supplement to these works by Louchitsky were his essays Agrarian Relationships in France on the Eve of the Revolution¹ and Excerpts from the History of Seignorial and Agrarian Relationships in France in the Epoch of the Revolution². These essays touch on a theme that was almost totally neglected by French historians.

I. Louchitsky's books are well known in France where he worked regularly for many years, investigating more than twenty provincial archives, collecting and making public

morales et politiques, août-septembre 1879.

1 Séances et travaux de l'Académie des sciences

p. 92, 1927).

² Journal des Savants, juillet, août, septembre 1880.
³ See Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, Collected Works, Vol. XXVII, p. 281. Friedrich Engels also referred to this book quite flatteringly in 1893 (c. f. the memoirs of A. Boden Annals of Marxism, Vol. IV,

¹ Russkoye Bogatstvo, No. 3, 1913.

² Nauchno-Istorichesky Zhurnal, 1914.

a great quantity of unpublished documents. Many of Louchitsky's works have been translated into French¹ and have earned the high praise of French scholars2. Some of his articles were published in French historical journals even in the 1930's.

Louchitsky's investigations are marked by a wealth of factual material. However, some of his deductions are obviously erroneous; for instance, he denies the presence of capitalistic elements in the agricultural economy of pre-revolutionary France, and ignores the fact that the French peasantry was differentiated into separate groups before the revolution.

Professor M. Kovalevsky waged a long controversy with Louchitsky on the question of peasant agriculture in France at the end of the 18th century. In 1893 he published an article entitled Peasant Economy in France a Hundred Years Ago³, in 1896 an article called The Extent of Peasant Property before the Revolution4 and in 1911 an article called Essays on Social Life in France⁵. In 1912 he published his book — The Origin of Petty Peasant Property in France. In distinction to Louchitsky, Kovalevsky considered that before the revolution a large part of the land in France was in the hands of the clergy and the nobility, and that with time peasant property in land did not increase but, on the contrary, decreased. The majority of the French peasants before the revolution, Kovalevsky pointed out, were not land owners but merely tenant farmers on land that belonged to others. In regard to this point Kovalevsky was indubitably closer to the truth than Louchitsky.

¹ I. Louchitsky, La Propriété Paysanne en France à la Veille de la Révolution (Principalement en Limousin), Paris, 1912. I. Louchitsky, L'état des Classes Agricoles en France à la Veille de la Révolution, Paris, 1911. I. Louchitsky, Quelques Remarques sur la Vente des Biens Nationaux, Paris, 1913.

² Henri Lee wrote an article entitled What the Economic and Social History of Eighteenth Century France Owes to Louchitsky (Nauchno-Istorichesky Zhurnal, No. 4, 1913); Philippe Lagnac noted that very little was known about the history of landed property in France before the appearance of Louchitsky's works. "If we know anything about it now, at least in certain of its most essential features, we are wholly indebted to Louchitsky for this knowledge" (Revue d'Histoire Moderne et Contemporaine, juillet-août, 1901). In his book Les Paysans du Nord (1912), Georges Lefèvre calls himself a pupil of Louchitsky. Aulard also greatly praised the works of Louchitsky.

Russkoye Bogatstvo, Nos. 2, 3 and 4, 1893.
 Russkaya Mysl, Book 6, 1896.
 Vestnik Evropy, Books 7, 8, 10—12, 1911.

Kovalevsky's principal work — The Origin of Modern Democracy (in four volumes, of which the first three are devoted to France) began to appear in 1895. This work devotes a great deal of space to the ideological preparation of the French revolution, to the social theories of the 18th century¹.

Erudite and versatile, a fruitful researcher and talented lecturer, M. Kovalevsky was well known abroad (in America as well as in Western Europe), where he spent many years after the reaction of the 'eighties made scholastic and pedagogical activity in Russia impossible for him as a man of liberal views (he returned to Russia after the revolution of 1905). Many of Kovalevsky's books have been translated into various European languages. For many years Kovalevsky was in contact with Marx, who had a high opinion of his

The studies of Kareyev, Louchitsky and Kovalevsky in the history of agrarian relationships in pre-revolutionary France have been commonly recognized by French and world science² as classical works of a kind that cannot be disregarded by any historian. In France this group of Russian scholars has come to be denoted by a special term which is still kept to this day — the term, Russian School (Ecole Russe)3.

The spirit of the work of the historians of the Russian School was clearly revealed in the position which Karevey, its greatest representative, took in the controversy over Taine's famous book Les Origines de la France Contemporaine. In 1907 Professor Aulard, outstanding authority on the history of the French Revolution, published a book in which he proved convincingly that Taine's reactionary convictions had prompted him to distort and pervert the history of France of this period.

1 Kovalevsky also deals with these questions in detail in another large work - From Direct Self-Government to Representative Government and from Patriarchal Monarchy to Parliamentarism, Vols. I—III, Moscow, 1906.

² In one of his articles, written in 1913, Prof. Aulard noted that in Russia "many noble minds" devoted themselves to a study of the economic and social history of 18th century France (La révolution Française, 14

Juin 1913).

S. Danini (Glagoleva), The Peasantry and the Agrarian Question in the Epoch of the Great Revolution (Annals, No. 1, 1922). The author of this article, a pupil of Louchitsky, cites many interesting utterances by French scholars regarding the works of the historians of the Russian School.

Cauchin came out in defence of Taine. In Russia Taine was upheld by Professor V. Gerier who published a series of articles about him and then (in 1907) a book called *The French Revolution of 1789—1795 as Interpreted by H. Taine*. Criticizing Aulard sharply, Gerier called him an "official representative of the prevailing Jacobin legend". Kareyev sided with Aulard and published an article entitled *Taine Judged by Aulard*. At the same time Kareyev also criticized Taine's Russian apologist, Gerier¹.

A highly important contribution to historical science are the numerous works of E. Tarle, member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. and Professor at the Leningrad and Moscow Universities, one of the most

eminent Russian historians.

Whereas in their studies Kareyev, Louchitsky and Kovalevsky threw light on the agrarian relationships and the position of the peasantry in France at the end of the 18th century, Tarle was the first to make a detailed study of the condition of industry and the position of the working class in France during the same period. His book Workers Engaged in National Manufactures in France in 1789—1791 appeared in 1907. In 1909—1911 there appeared his principal work on the history of the French revolution — a monograph in two volumes called The Working Class in France in the Epoch of the Revolution. During these same years two books by Tarle were published in Paris in French: La Classe Ouvrière et la Propagande Contre-Révolutionnaire en France pendant la Révolution and L'Industrie dans les Campagnes de France à la Fin de l'Ancien Régime. These works, which present a lucid conception of the condition of the working class and its role in the revolution, are based on extensive documental material collected by the author in Parisian archives and libraries during his visits abroad. His vast erudition and able utilization of unpublished archival funds, both Russian and foreign, distinguish E. Tarle as a scholar. Another distinguishing merit of his work is his brilliant literary style.

An important supplement to Tarle's two-volume study of the working class in France in the epoch of the revolution is his excellent monograph *Germinal and Prairial*, which came out in the Soviet Union (1937). This

book is devoted to the history of these two mass uprisings in Paris after Thermidor (April and May 1795), which were not described in his monograph *The Working Class in France in the Epoch of the Revolution.*

The mass risings in Germinal and Prairial are one of the subjects that has been least studied in the history of 18th century France.

Much space has also been devoted to the mass movements that occurred in the period of the French revolution in the well known book by P. Kropotkin *The Great French Revolution of 1789—1793*, which was originally published in French (Paris, 1900) and only later in Russian (Moscow, 1919). The author's anarchist views prevented him from presenting a correct interpretation of these movements and from correctly appraising the political role played by the plebeian masses in the course of the revolution.

Russian scholars also devoted much attention to studying the ideological development of French society in the 18th century. Mention should be made here first of all of the excellent book written by Professor A. Shakhov Voltaire and His Time (1907, 2nd edition), the essay by V. Zasulich, Voltaire (1909) and a long new monograph about Voltaire written by Prof. K. Derzhavin to mark the 250th anniversary of the birth of "the king of philosophers" (1944). The Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. and the University of Leningrad likewise produced two collections of articles to mark this data. In this connection mention should also be made of the publication by V. Lyublinsky and N. Platonov in 1937 of Voltaire's unpublished papers (manuscripts and letters), preserved in the Leningrad Public Library¹. They contain new material characterizing the great philosopher.

Further we must make mention of the excellent article by G. Plekhanov — Jean-Jacques Rousseau and His Teaching on the Origin of Inequality among People², V. Zasulich's book Jean-Jacques Rousseau⁸ and three books about Rousseau by A. Alexeyev⁴,

¹ Russkoye Bogatstvo, No. 7, 1998.

¹ Literaturnoye Nasledstvo, Vol. 29 — 30, 1937, pp. 3—200 (Works By and About Voltaire in the U.S.S.R.).

G. Plekhanov, Collected Works, Vol. VIII.
 Novaya Moskva Publishing House, 1923.

⁴ A. Alexeyev, Studies of Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Moscow, 1937.

M. Rozanov¹ and G. Gurvich². These studies by Russian scholars, based on extensive factual material, represent a valuable contribution to world literature on this great French philo-

sopher of the 18th century³.

One of the best works on French ideology and "enlightening philosophy" in the 18th century is that of the prominent Soviet scholar, V. Volgin-Social and Political Ideas in France before the Revolution, 1748—1789 (1940). We find in it an analysis of the economic and social views of the physiocrats (Quesnay, Turgot), of the equalization theory of Rousseau and the representatives of his school (Gosselin), of the social views of Necker, Linguet, of the communist ideas and cooperative projects of Morelly and Mably, Rétif de la Brétonne and Boissel. This is followed by an analysis of the theories of the physiocrats (Mercier de la Rivière), of the "enlightened absolutism" and constitutional theories of Montesquieu and the encyclopaedists. The book presents the political theories of the democrats Rousseau and Mably and a characterization of the representatives of bourgeois radicalism on the eve of the revolution — Condorcet, and Abbé Siéyes.

It is obvious from the above that this is a comprehensive work that presents a lucid conception (based on a deep analysis of sources) of the social and political ideas of

pre-revolutionary France.

Another widely known book by Volgin -Essays on the History of Socialism (1935, 4th edition)—contains two studies of revolutionary ideology in the 18th century (of the revolutionary priest Jean Mellier4 and of Baboeufism). From Baboeuf to Marx is the title of a paper read by Acad. Volgin at the Fifth International Congress of History in Warsaw in 1933 (the text of this paper is included in the above book). Likewise interesting in concept is a long article by the same author which is primarily based on French documentary material and is called The

Volgin's works testify to his superb knowledge of source material. These works are a valuable contribution to world historical literature since for the greater part they deal with questions that historians before him either did not touch on at all or touched on very superficially.

The most serious study ever made of Barnave was made by a Russian historian. We are referring to I. Popov-Lensky's Antoine Barnave and the Materialistic Conception of History which appeared in 1924.

Soviet historians have also written a number of both scholarly and popular essays on certain other representatives of 18th century French ideology — Diderot, Helvetius, Holbach, etc.

Special mention should be made of the chapters on the French philosophers of the 18th century in the second volume of the recent publication of the Institute of Philosophy of the Academy of Sciences of the U. S. S. R. — The History of Philosophy (1941). These chapters present the first Marxist generalization of all the complex phenomena of 18th century French ideology in their totality and their interrelationship. This book won the Stalin Prize in 1943.

Of great value are the studies of the late Professor P. Shchegolev (1903—1936), who was a talented and highly promising young scholar, on the history of social thought and social movements in France during the last years of the revolution. His book After Thermidor, consisting of a series of essays on the history of France in 1794—1795, appeared in 1930. The most interesting part of this book is its fourth chapter: Social and Economic Problems of the Class Struggle in the First Period of the Thermidor Reaction, which is based on a careful study of published and archival documents. The author throws new light on the annulment of the law of 1793 fixing a maximum price for foodstuffs and proves that, despite the traditional point of view, even after 9th Thermidor there were no few people who favoured the preservation of the system of maximum prices. P. Shchegolev also wrote two books about Baboeuf and

1 M. Rozanov, Rousseau and the Literary Move-

² G. Gurvich, Rousseau and the Declaration of Rights, Petrograd, 1918.

Development of Socialistic Ideas and the Stalinist Constitution (Historical Commentary on the First Chapter of the Constitution)¹.

ment of the 18th and Beginning of the 19th Centuries, Moscow, 1910.

Several formerly unpublished letters of Rousseau, the originals of which are preserved in the Archives of the U. S. S. R., were published in 1939 (Literatur-noye Nasledstvo, Vol. 33-34).

The first Russian translation of Jean Mellier's famous Bequest appeared in 1923, edited by V. Volgin.

¹ Istorik-Marksist, No. 1, 1940.

the Conspiracy of the Equals in 1796. The first of them appeared in 1927 and the second in 1933.

These books are all the more valuable in that with very few exceptions (Maurice Dommanget, author of a brochure about Baboeuf and editor of Pages Choisies de Baboeuf) French scholars have shown very little interest in Baboeuf's communist outlook and his revolutionary activity. This was admitted a few years ago by the French historian Walter Gérard in the journal Monde (1935), where he noted the works of Volgin and Shchegolev on Baboeuf. The very first Russian work on Baboeuf to appear was E. Tarle's study — The Baboeuf Case¹.

Outstanding among the works on the economic and social history of France on the eve of and during the French Revolution are: Prof. K. Dobrolyubsky's book Economic Policy of the Thermidor Reaction (1930), based on extensive documentary material; an article by Professor S. Skazkin on the differentiation of the peasantry in the province of Champagne2; an article by Professor O. Weinstein called French Commercial Colonies in the Levant in the Epoch of the Revolution³, Professor G. Afanasiev's interesting book -The Grain Trade in France at the End of the Eighteenth Century (1892), which has been translated into French; an interesting essay by S. Falkner called Paper Money in the French Revolution (1919); a very comprehensive book by S. Kunisky and B. Poznyakov called Communal Land in the Epoch of the Great French (1927); a lengthy article by D. Petrov called The Abolition of the Seignorial Regime in France (based on Documents Published by Sagnac and Caron⁴).

There is a vast literature in all European languages on the history of the wars of the French Revolution. Of the Russian works on this question mention should be made of an essay by Professor A. Jivelegov called The Army of the Great French Revolution and its Leaders (1923) and a monograph by M. Bukovetskaya called The Army of the French

Istorik-Marksist, No. 2, 1936.

³ Novy Vostok, Nos. 25, 26—27, 1929. Ucheniye Zapiski, Leningrad University, No. 52, 1940.

Kievskiye Universitetskiye Izvestiya, No. 8, Part. 2, 1915.

Revolution of 1789—1794 (prepared press)1.

French historians (Forneron, Daudet, Baldensperger and others) repeatedly dealt with the history of emigration in the period of the French Revolution of 1789-1794. This, however, does not detract from the independent significance and scholarly value of Professor O. Weinstein's book — Essaus on the History of the French Revolution (1924), written on the basis of memoirs, pamphlets, brochures and newspapers of that period that have been preserved in the Vorontsov Library in Odessa. Likewise deserving of mention is a comprehensive article by N. Golitsyn entitled The Writer Senac de Meilhan and Catherine II (1791) treating of the attitude of the Russian empress towards French emigration².

Russian scholars have also contributed their bit to the study of the history of international relations during the French Revolution. The policy of the European powers on the eve of and during the first years of the French Revolution is dealt with in an interesting article by Professor R. Averbuch⁸. In it the author makes use of unpublished documents from the archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. A number of hitherto unknown documents throwing new light on international policy during the first years of the French Revolution (1789—1790) were published under the editorship of R. Averbuch⁴. The reports of I. Simolin, the Russian ambassador to Paris between 1789 and 1792 were also published⁵. These reports throw new light on the events of that period, especially on relations between France and Russia. The same may be said of S. Bogoyavlensky's article Russia and France in 1789-1792 (based on copies of reports by Edmond Genet, French Chargé d'affaires in Russia6).

Extensive material on the history of Franco-Russian relations from the beginning of the 18th century to the beginning of the 20th century is contained in the three volumes of Collected Treaties and Conventions Concluded

Istorik-Marksist, No. 3, 1939. Krasny Archiv, No. 4, 1939.

¹ E. Tarle - Essays on the History of the Social Movement in Europe in the XX Century, St. Petersburg, 1903.

¹ The first part of this monograph was printed in the journal Annaly, No. 4, 1924, in the form of an article entitled Collapse of the Royal Army in the First Years of the Great French Revolution.

² Literaturnoye Nasledstvo, Vol. 33—34, 1939.

Literaturnoye Nasledstvo, Vol. 29—30, 1937. Literaturnoye Nasledstvo, Vol. 33—34, 1939.

between Russia and Foreign Powers¹. This well-known work is by Professor F. Martens, Professor of the University of St. Petersburg, member of the French Academy of Sciences and an authority on international law. Martens published this work at the request of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, of whose council he was a permanent member. The texts of the international agreements cited here are presented with extensive commentaries and with documented appendices in which previously unpublished archives are used. Prof. Marten's work, which was published in both Russian and French, has found a permanent place in world literature on this subject.

Under the editorship of E. Tarle and Professors A. Efimov, V. Khvostov and F. Notovich a large volume of documents entitled Tsarism and the Bourgeois Revolution in France in the Eighteenth Century (Vol. I -International Relations on the Eve of and during the First Year of the French Revolution) has been prepared for press.

Many old works by Russian scholars on France's foreign policy and international relations at the end of the 18th century still preserve their value, as for instance, A. Trachevsky's article The German Question in France under Louis XVI2; A. Brikner Catherine II and the French Revolution⁸; P. Mitrofanov Marquis Emmanuel de Noailles — The French Ambassador to the Viennese Court, 1789—17924 and others. Special mention should be made of Leopold II of Austria. Foreign Policy (Vol. I, Part I, Petrograd, 1916), a highly valuable work by Professor P. Mitrofanov (died 1917). This work makes use of extensive documentary material found in Viennese archives.

All these studies and publications by Russian historians have contributed much that is new to the comprehension of European diplomacy at the end of the 18th century, and especially of the policies of France and Russia. Part of this material is already familiar to scholars in western Europe.

The interest of Russian scholars in the ideological and cultural history of France on

the eye of and in the epoch of the revolution of 1789—1799 found its reflection in a number of monographs of outstanding scholarship. First among these is Professor K. Derzhavin's The Theatre of the French Revolution (1937, 2nd edition), which is the most comprehensive and analytical book there is on this subject. A. Deutsch's books The Red and the Black, Actors in the Epoch of the French Revolution (1939) and Talma (1934) are written in a very lively style. A. Kucherov's long essay on The French Revolution and Russian Literature in the Eighteenth Century¹ is very interesting. Mention should likewise be made of S. Vavilov's valuable essay Science and Technique in the Period of the French Revolution², V. Virginsky's Science and Technique at the Service of the Defence of the Jacobin Republic³ and O. Staroselsky's On the History of Science in the Epoch of the French Bourgeois Revo-

lution of 1789—1794⁴.

The 150th anniversary of the French Revolution, which was widely marked by Soviet historians and the entire Soviet public, strongly stimulated further study of its history. A great number of scholarly and popular works on the history of this revolution was published in 1939. The Istorichesky Zhurnal (Historical Journal) devoted much attention to this anniversary in 1939. In 1940 the Historical Department of the University of Leningrad published a collection of articles on the French Revolution⁵, under the editorship and with a preface by Professor Molok. In the same year the Moscow Institute of History, Philosophy and Literature put out a collection of essays devoted to the 150th anniversary of the French Revolution. Especially interesting among the essays contained in these collections are those by Professor F. Potemkin on The Economic Crisis in 1787—1789 which presents a new interpretation of this question; by Professor P. Shchegolev on *Philippe Buonarotti and His* Book The Conspiracy of the Equals; and by Professor B. Porshnev on Peasant and Plebeian Movements in France in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries (a lengthy resumé of facts about these movements in different parts of the country).

Pod Znamenem Marksisma, No. 8, 1939.

¹ Volume XIII (Treaties with France, 1717—1807) appeared in 1902, Vol. XIV (Treaties with France, 1807—1820) in 1905, Vol. XV (Treaties with France, 1822—1906) in 1909.

² Zapiski Novorossiiskovo Universiteta, Vol. 31, 1880.

Istorichesky Vestnik, August 1895.

Zhurnal Ministerstva Narodnovo Prosveshcheniya (ZHMNP), Part. 29, 1910.

¹ The Eighteenth Century. A Collection of Essays and Other Material, Academy of Sciences Press. Leningrad. 1935.

³ Sovetskaya Nauka, No. 7, 1939.

Istorik-Marksist, No. 3, 1939. Ucheniye Zapiski LGU, Issue 6, 1940.

In 1941 there appeared a voluminous work by a group of Soviet historians (26 authors) under the editorship of V. Volgin and E. Tarle called The French Bourgeois Revolution of 1789-1794. This was the first volume to be published of the World-Wide History series which is being prepared by the Institute of History of the Academy of Sciences of the U. S. S. R. The book touches on the events leading up to and the development of the French Revolution, domestic relations in prerevolutionary France and French international policy at the end of the 18th century. Such topics as the development of science and culture in the epoch of the revolution, the influence of the French Revolution on the social and political struggle in other European countries, the history of the French Revolution from the beginning of the 19th century up to the present day, are dealt with in special chapters. The authors made use of extensive documentary material. A detailed bibliography is appended to the book.

The publication of this fundamental work¹, the first to treat so comprehensively of the grounds leading to, the course, the outcome and the international significance of the French Revolution from a Marxist-Leninist point of view, is striking testimony to the growth of Soviet historical science.

The war has caused the postponement of issueing Publications of the Period of the Bourgeois Revolution in France in 1789—1794, preserved in the Principal Libraries of the U. S. S. R. (edited by Professor F. Potemkin). This is a comprehensive bibliographical index (16,000 pages) compiled by R. Tomkovaya, a member of the Leningrad department of the Institute of History of the Academy of Sciences of the U. S. S. R. The publication of this catalogue will be of world wide importance.

II.

Historical literature about Napoleon and the Napoleonic wars numbers, as is well known, many thousands of volumes in all the European languages. Russian scholars have made a large contribution to world literature about Napoleon. This is especially true of the works of E. Tarle, one of the greatest authorities on this period. In 1913 he published his *Conti-*

nental Blockade, a fundamental study based on extensive and diverse documentary material obtained from archives in Paris (the National Archives), London (Record office) and Milan (State Archives). This book is the only study in world literature that presents a systematic account of how Napoleon elaborated and carried out his blockade of England and its commerce. The author also makes a detailed study of the influence of this policy on the development of French commerce and industry and convincingly proves that the blockade did not justify the hope reposed in it by France's commercial and industrial circles and by the Emperor himself.

This work was of far greater significance than those on the same subject by the German historian P. Darmstädter and others. It was well received in France and throughout Europe.

In 1916 E. Tarle brought out another study of the same epoch under the title *The Economic Life of the Italian Kingdom During the Reign of Napoleon*. On the basis of a vast amount of documentary material this work further developed the theses treated in the former. A French translation of this book was published in Paris in 1927. These two books by Tarle have done much to place the study of early 19th century European history on a firm scientific basis of economic facts.

In 1922 Tarle published a brochure entitled *The French Press Under Napoleon I.* In 1928 he brought out a short study of Napoleon's economic policy, written in French and entitled *Napoléon I et les intérêts économiques de la France.*

Tarle's book Napoleon, published in 1930, met with enormous success both in the U. S. S. R. and abroad. This brilliantly written biography, presented against a background of the sweeping and dramatic events of the Napoleonic epoch, grips the reader's attention from beginning to end. In writing it, the author drew upon the results of his many years' research on this epoch. It is undoubtedly the most vivid and the most talented of all the existing biographies of Napoleon. It has gone through several editions and has been translated into French, English, Italian, Swedish and Polish. It received high praise from the eminent French historian Ed. Driault in a review which appeared in the Revue des études napoléoniennes (1938), the official organ of the Institut Napoléonien.

¹ A new, revised edition of this book is now being prepared.

In 1939 Tarle brought out a short, splendidly written biography of Talleyrand, famous diplomat and one of the leading personalities of the end of the eighteenth and the first part of the nineteenth century.

The one hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary of the Russian people's war against the Napoleonic invasion was marked in 1937 by the appearance of numerous new researches into this epoch. The *Scientific Transactions of the University of Leningrad* for 1938 was almost entirely devoted to researches on the War of 1812.

Tarle's book Napoleon's Invasion of Russia in 1812 was published in 1938. Like his biography of Napoleon, this book is distinguished for its wealth of material and its interesting presentation of the subject. In writing this book, the author made use of the material collected by the well known historian N. Schilder which is now in the Leningrad Public Library. The book appeared at a time when the dark clouds of fascist aggression were already hanging over our country and other freedom-loving lands. It is replete with a feeling of profound patriotism. It proves the utter groundlessness of Napoleon's plans for world domination, plans which his paltry imitator, Hitler, also thought to carry out.

Considerable scientific interest attaches to the late Major General Levitsky's study Napoleon's Generalship, published in 1937. It contains a detailed Marxian analysis of Napoleon's military doctrine and his principles of strategy and tactics as well as a systematic analysis of all of Napoleon's campaigns.

Researches on Napoleon have always occupied a prominent place in the work of Russian historians, particularly those at the University of Leningrad. In the last ten years alone the Department of Modern History at this University has published seven studies on French and European history of the Napoleonic epoch. Prof. A. Molok's study Espionage and Sabotage in the Time of Napoleon was published in 1937 and was followed the next year by his essay Napoleon's Empire on the Eve of the War of 1812². In 1939 two research studies by students of Prof. Tarle's seminars were published by the University - Industry and Foreign Trade in France after the 18th Brumaire by Y. Ratiani and The Anglo-French

1 Istorichesky Zhurnal, No. 6, 1937.

Struggle for India in the Epoch of Napoleon I by V. Antyukhina¹. In 1940 I. Smorgon, a graduate student of the University (later killed in action), submitted a dissertation for a Master's degree on the theme The State Structure of France during the Consulate and the Empire. In 1941 I. Gutkina, now an associate professor, submitted a dissertation on the subject Diplomatic Relations Between France and Russia in 1807 and 1808. That same year, K. Ratkevich, who has since died, completed his dissertation on the theme The Westphalian Kingdom from 1807 to 1813².

Among the numerous studies of unpublished documents relating to the history of Franco-Russian relations at the beginning of the 19th century, special mention must be made of the many volumes published by the Grand Duke Nikolai Mikhailovich under the title Diplomatic Relations between Russia and France as Reflected in the Official Reports of the Ambassadors of Alexander I and Napoleon I from 1808 to 1812. This work, which is of primary interest to historians, was issued in ten volumes, published at various intervals from 1904 to 1910.

III.

Russian scholars have also written a number of major works on the history of France in the post-Napoleonic period, during the Bourbon Restoration and the July Monarchy. The main thesis of these works is concerned with the economic and social history of France, at that time undergoing an industrial crisis in connection with the formation of a working class and the development of a working class movement.

In 1913 Prof. Butenko published a large work entitled *The Liberal Party in France during the Restoration*. Only the first part of this work, dealing with the years from 1814 to 1820, appeared in print. This book is one of the finest researches on this subject in world literature. It is based on voluminous documentary material, much of which is unpublished. The author dwells at some length on the social and political views of Benjamin Constans, Pierre Royer-Collard, Françoise Guizot and other prominent members of the Liberal Party. One of the most interesting chapters in the book is that about *The*

¹ Ibid., No. 36, 1939. Third Issue.

² Scientific Transactions of the University of Leningrad, No. 19, 1938.

² Excerpts from this study were printed in Transaction No. 19, 1938.

Hundred Days (1815). As a supplement to the material in this book Prof. Butenko published two very interesting essays entitled The Social Composition of the Liberal Opposition in France during the Restoration¹ and The Turning Point in the History of the Restoration in France².

In 1928 E. Tarle's monograph The Working Class in France in the Period Following the Industrial Revolution was published. It is based on a systematic study of unpublished documents from French archives and covers the period from 1814 to 1821. This book gives a detailed account of the working class and the development of the working class movement in France during the Restoration and the first years of the July Monarchy. It is a much more profound and significant research than the well known study published in 1903 by Lavosseur of the French Academy on industry and the working class in France at that time. It is also superior to Prof. N. Lee's essays about this period, published in book form in 1927.

Mention must also be made of Prof. F. Potemkin's book The Lyon Insurrection of 1831 and 1834 (Moscow, 1937), based on copious documentary material, much of it unpublished. The actual scope of this book is greater than its title indicates. It not only contains a detailed account of both Lyon insurrections but also presents the history of the French working class and French democracy at the beginning of the 1830's, i. e. during the first and stormiest years of that memorable decade. Despite the fact that French historical literature possesses many valuable studies of these two insurrections (a special periodical on the history of Lyon. Revue d'histoire de Lyon, existed in France until 1940) Prof. Potemkin's book is one of the most exhaustive researches on this subject. Besides giving a detailed analysis of the causes of these insurrections and the history of the actual insurrections, the author presents an interesting analysis of the reaction to them among the ruling classes and the general public in other parts of France and in other European countries.

A number of other studies by the same author on the economic and social history of France are closely linked with this book. The most noteworthy of these studies is the one entitled On the Social History of French Industry.

These works by Prof. Potemkin, all marked by a splendid presentation of the subject and perfect research technique and based on a vast amount of documentary material published and unpublished — are of tremendous importance. They were the first to pose and, in part, to solve the problem of the history of the Industrial Revolution and the formation of the working class in France. Although this problem had been treated by many French authors and in particular by Ballot¹, it was best interpreted in the works of this Soviet scientist, who approached the subject from the Marxian-Leninist point of view. Prof. Potemkin's contemplated work The Industrial Revolution in France should throw even more light on this problem.

Special mention should be made of two articles by Nikolai Chernyshevsky, which have not aged despite the fact that they were written almost a century ago. Both these articles — The Struggle of Parties in France under Louis XVIII and Charles X and The July Monarchy in France² were published in the Sovremennik in 1858 and 1860, respectively. They contain a profound analysis and a vivid characterization of the Liberal Party from the point of view of a revolutionary democrat.

Prof. A. Molok has completed a large work on the history of the Revolution of July, 1830. This revolution played an important role in the struggle against European reaction during the time of the Holy Alliance. The author has made use of considerable source material, especially periodicals and memoirs. Two chapters of this work, which Prof. Molok submitted for his Doctor's dissertation in 1940, have already been published³.

In 1941 I. Kisseldorf wrote a dissertation for a Master's degree on the theme *The Society of Friends of the People and the Republican Insurrection of July 5—6, 1832 in Paris*⁴. This study is based on authentic do-

From the Remote and Recent Past, a volume of articles published in honour of the fiftieth anniversary of the scientific work of N. Kareyev, Petrograd, 1923.
Annals, No. 3, 1923.

Ballot, L'introduction du machinisme en France. Paris, 1923.

N. Chernyshevsky. Complete Works, Vol. IV. St. Petersburg, 1906.

³ Istorik-Marksist. No. 6, 1936; Literaturnoye Nasledstvo. Vol. 29—30, 1937.

⁴ Excerpts from this work have been published in Scientific Transactions of the Vologda Pedagogical Institute. No. 3, 1942.

cuments of the period and it presents a more detailed account of the democratic movement in Paris during the first two years of the July Monarchy than any previous works on this subject.

A short but very interesting study of Charles Fourier by I. Dvortsov (1937) was published in connection with the centenary of the death of this great French philosopher. Academician Volgin has written an essay entitled *The Social Views of Fourier* (published in *Ocherki po Istorii Sotsializma* — Essays on the History of Socialism) which contributes much to the understanding of Fourier's ideas. Mention must also be made of an interesting book by Prof. I. Zilberfarb entitled *Fourier's Views on Education* (1936).

Prof. A. Ioannisyan's book *The Genesis of Fourier's Social Ideals* (1939) deserves special mention. This book, which testifies to the great erudition of its author (a pupil of Acad. Volgin) presents interesting new material on the history of 18th century philosophy. One of the best chapters is that about Retif de la Bretonne and Fourier.

Prof. D. Rosenberg's *History of Political Economy* (1935—1936) contains extensive and splendidly summarized material on the history of French Utopian Socialism.

Although this is a departure from chronological order, mention may be made here of the fact that a manuscript compiled by Auguste Banqui in 1868—1869 under the title Instruction for an Armed Uprising was first published in the U. S. S. R. This manuscript, which is extremely characteristic of the work of this great Frenchman, was discovered in the Paris National Library by the Soviet historian S. Krasny and published by him in 1927.

This very interesting document subsequently appeared in the French and German press.

Before concluding the section of our bibliography covering historical literature on France during the Bourbon Restoration and the July Monarchy, mention must be made of several publications of source material heretofore available only in manuscript form.

Considerable scientific interest attaches to the publication of the hitherto unpublished correspondence of Baroness Julia Kruedener, Count Joseph de Maistre, Chateaubriand and other European aristocrats prominent during

1 Istorik-Marksist, No. 3, 1937.

the period of the Holy Alliance (and in some cases during the Napoleonic epoch as well). This material was prepared for the press in 1937 by a number of Soviet and French historians and writers — A. Efros, M. Stepanova, F. Verman, Mme. Cecile Daubrey and others. These letters shed a new light on diplomatic and cultural relations between the European powers and also on the life and manners of aristocratic society at that time. That same year, 1937, a number of unpublished letters by and to Madame de Stael (including her correspondence with Alexander I) published in an article by S. Durylin. These documents, referring for the most part to the first years of the Bourbon Restoration, offer much new material on this turbulent period in European history and also on Franco-Russian relations¹.

Another interesting source of material for historians of international policy is the official correspondence of General Pozzo di Borgo, Russian ambassador in Paris, with Graf Nesselrode, the Russian Foreign Minister. These documents, which cover the period from 1815 to 1818, were published in French in the Sbornik Russkovo Istoricheskovo Obshchestva (Collected Publications of the Russian Historical Society). They throw considerable light on the domestic situation in France, events inside the country on which Pozzo di Borgo was well informed thanks to his connections with French society. The same may be said of the reports made by Butyagin, Chargé d'affaires at the Russian Embassy, referring to the period of the Hundred Days.

T. Bogdanovich has written an interesting article based on the unpublished papers of Graf Kochubey, a prominent statesman during the reign of Alexander I and Nicholas I. These documents are preserved in the Kochubey family archives at Dikanka. A large part of the article is given over to a description of the relations between France and Russia during the Bourbon Restoration and the July Revolution².

IV.

A special scientific society on the history of the Revolution of 1848 (Société d'histoire de la Révolution de 1848) functioned in France until 1940. This Society, founded in 1904, published its own organ. In all the years of

² Annals, No. 4, 1924.

¹ Literaturnoye Nasledstvo. Vol. 29—30, 33—34, 1937.

its existence, however, the Bulletin of this Society never once printed a single research work on the history of the July Days, This is to be explained, in part, by the fact that until 1933 the documents on this epoch, which were preserved in the archives of the War Ministry in Paris, were unavailable to researchers.

A number of new and hitherto unknown documents concerning the events of 1848 in France have been published in the U. S. S. R. These are letters of Alexander Herzen, P. Annenkov, Y. Tolstoy and A. Karamzin¹. · An interesting article by Academician M. Pokrovsky entitled Lamartine, Cavaignac and Nicholas I interprets French foreign policy and Franco-Russian relations of that period from a new angle. The official reports of N. Kiselev², the Russian Ambassador in Paris. were utilized in this article.

Prof. S. Lozinsky's History of the Second French Republic was published in Kiev in 1904. Soviet historians studying this period of French history at the present time concentrate their interest on the June uprising of the Paris workers, the most outstanding event of this epoch. This event forms the subject of two books by Prof. Molok: June Days (published in 1933) and Karl Marx and the Uprising of June 1848 (published in $1934)^3$. Prof. Molok used the files of French and, in part, German newspapers of 1848 as well as unpublished documents of the Paris National Archives (principally the papers of the Investigation Committee functioning under the Constituent Assembly in 1838).

The domestic history of France in the 1850's and 1860's never particularly attracted the interest of Russian historians. This was not the case, however, with the history of French foreign policy in these years. Not a single historian of French foreign policy during the Second Empire nor a single historian of 19th century diplomacy can afford to

² M. Pokrovsky. Diplomatiya i voiny tsarskoi Rossii (Diplomacy and Wars of Tsarist Russia). Moscow,

1924.

disregard E. Tarle's fundamental research on the Crimean War (Part I, 1941; Part 2, 1943). This work won the author a Stalin Prize in 1943. Like Tarle's other books, his history of the Crimean War is superbly written and shows the author's acquaintance with a vast amount of documentary material (principally unpublished). It contains not only a detailed account of the military operations but also a profound analysis of the diplomatic preparations for the war and Franco-English, Franco-Russian, Anglo-Russian and Prusso-Russian relations at the beginning of the 1850's. There are also very vivid portrayals of a number of historical figures, including Napoleon III, various ministers and generals.

The documents relating to the secret Franco-Russian treaty of March 3, 1859 throw a vivid light on the Russo-French rapprochement at the end of the 1850's. These documents were first published several years ago in U.S.S.R. with a preface by Academician F. Rotstein¹. Mention must also be made of Prof. Afanasyev's essay The Foreign Policy of Napoleon III (published in 1888). Another serious study of this same period is that by N. Kukharsky — Franco-Russian Relations on the Eve of the Crimean War, was published in 1940 by the University of Leningrad. Another research brought out by the University of Leningrad is a dissertation for a Master's degree by E. Agevev entitled The French Expedition to Mexico in 1862—1867 and the Policy of the United States. The author of this work, who was killed in action in 1941, made use of French and American source materials. This same aspect of Napoleon III's foreign policy is analysed by M. Pokorsky in an essay called The Year 18632, in which the author reviews the whole chain of events in international politics during this period.

The history of the Franco-Prussian War of 1870—1871 has begun to attract the interest of many Soviet scholars during the last few years. In 1943 Academician Rotstein, a specialist in the history of international relations, published an essay entitled On the Origins of the Franco-Prussian War³. In 1944 Prof. Molok brought out an article called Franc-

Herzen, A. Novye Materialy, Moscow, 1927 (published by N. Mendelson). The Revolution in France, official report by Y. Tolstoy, Moscow, 1925. Istorichesky Sbornik. Vol. III, Leningrad, 1934. Karamzin's Correspondence, 1841—1848. Istorichesky Sbornik, Vol. IV, Len., 1935. (Unpublished letters of P. Annenkov about the Revolution of 1848 in Paris.)

Trudy I Vsesoyuznoi konferentsii istorikov marksistov (Transaction of the 1st All-Union Conference of Marxian Historians), Vol. III, Moscow, 1930.

¹ Krasny Arkhiv, Vol. 3 (88), 1938, pp. 182, 265. Priority on the study of this theme belongs to L. Feiginaya (Veka, Istorichesky Sbornik, Vol. I, Leningrad, 1924). ² Vneshnaya Politika, Moscow, 1919.

³ Istorichesky Zhurnal, No. 11-12, 1943.

tireurs in France during the War of 1870— 1871¹. An enlarged edition of this work, which is of particular interest today, is now

being published in French.

The first volume of A History of Diplomacy covering the period up to 1871, was published at the beginning of 1941. This book, of which V. Potemkin was editor-in-chief, is the work of several authors. It gives a prominent place to French foreign policy in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries. The chapters, or parts of chapters, dealing with this subject, have been written by E. Tarle, Professors S. Skazkin and V. Khvostov and Associate Professor A. Narochnitsky. The book was awarded a Stalin Prize.

V.

Even in old tsarist Russia interest in the history of the Paris Commune of 1871 ran very high. Under the conditions of the tsarist regime, however, this subject could be treated only in illegal publications. The first original work by a Russian historian on this subject was that by P. Lavrov which was published abroad in 1876. In 1911 Lenin, the founder of the Soviet state, published an article in the illegal press entitled In Memory of the Commune and in 1917 he devoted two chapters of his classical work The State and Revolution to an analysis of the revolution of 1871. Soviet historians have always been intensely interested in the history of the Commune. Lenin and Stalin repeatedly emphasised the significance of a careful study of the experience gained from the Commune. In the twenty-seven years that have elapsed since the October Revolution, Soviet historians, as foreign specialists themselves admit, have done more research on the history of the Commune than the historians of all other countries including France in the seventy years since the establishment of the Commune. A number of general and special studies on this subject have appeared in the Soviet Union during these years.

One of the first Soviet researches on this subject was Prof. N. Bystryansky's book Essays on the History of the Paris Commune of 1871 (Petrograd, 1921). The most exhaustive treatment was that of the late P. Kerzhentsev, whose History of the Paris Commune was published in 1940. This work is a summary, so to speak, of many years' intensive work on this subject by Soviet historians. It was begun in 1922-23 and was carried on simultaneously in Moscow, Leningrad and Odessa on the basis of documents preserved in the valuable archives of these cities.

One of the best of the general studies on this subject is that of Prof. O. Weinstein,

published in 1932.

This author has also written a book of essays on the Paris Commune in the Ukrainian language and two interesting articles entitled The Paris Commune and the Bank of France¹ and The Paris Commune and the Proletariat in the Revolution of 18712. The last article attempts to give a new interpretation of the relations between the government of the Commune and the working class of Paris.

Prof. S. Kan has also written a series of interesting articles on the Paris Commune — The Jacobin Press before the Revolution of March 183, The Bank of France and Preparations for the Events of March 184, The Government of Thiers and Preparations for the Events of March 185, Marx as Organizer of Aid for the Victime of the Versailles Terror (Published in 1933). In the latter article the author made use of unpublished documents of the 1st International.

Mention may also be made of Prof. Molok's works: Essays on Life and Culture During the Paris Commune (1924), The Paris Commune in Documents and Materials (1925), The Paris Commune and the Peasantry (1925), The Military Organization of the Paris Commune and General Rossel⁶, André Léo, Journalist of the Paris Commune⁷, The White Terror in France in 1871 (1926) and German Intervention against the Paris Commune (1939).

Mention must also be made of V. Alexevev-Popov's valuable study entitled The Working Class and Social-democratic Germany During the Paris Commune. E. Zhelubovskva's interesting essay The Struggle for the Commune in Marseille in 18718 deals with the city famous for its democratic traditions, the city which gave its name to the French national anthem.

1 Istorik-Marksist, No. 1, 1926.

Ibid., No. 4, 1933. Borba Klassov, 1933.

¹ Istorichesky Zhurnal, No. 3, 1944.

Izvestiya Otdeleniya Obshchestvennykh Nauk Academii Nauk, Nos. 5, 7—8, 1930.

3 Istorik-Marksist, No. 6, 1927.

Istorik-Marksist, No. 6, 1941. Pod Znamenem Marksizma, No. 6, 1927. Istorik-Marksist, No. 7, 1928.

Great interest attaches to A. Lurye's book *Portraits of the Leaders of the Paris Commune* (Varlain, Ferré, Delescluze, Dombrowski, Louisa Michel) which was published in 1942.

The great slope of Soviet historians' interest in the Paris Commune is demonstrated in the titles of two interesting books — The Paris Commune and Artists (1934) by Prof. Gushchin, and Theatrical Life in Paris during the Commune by Prof. Y. Danilin (1926). The latter book evoked favorable comment in the French newspaper Humanité (June 19, 1936), which expressed the desire that this book be translated into French. Prof. Kunysky has completed a lengthy study called Paris Commune and Reactions to it in Russia (1940).

The Marx-Engels-Lenin Institute, which possesses a very valuable collection of material on the Paris Commune, has issued a number of publications on the history of the Commune: Correspondence of Leaders of the 1st International in the Days of the Commune (1933), Worker-Correspondents During the Paris Commune (letters written to the editors of the newspaper Père Duchêne) (1933), The 1st International during the Paris Commune (1942), written in part by Prof. M. Zorky, who was killed in action not long after completing this essay. All these documents have been published only in a Russian translation, without the original French or English texts. In 1934 the Institute brought out hitherto unpublished preliminary notes and the first rough drafts of Karl Marx's famous book The Civil War in France¹. V. Adoratsky was editor-in-chief of this book, which was published simultaneously in Russian and English.

A volume of documents entitled Tsarist Diplomacy and the Paris Commune was published in 1933. This consists of hitherto unpublished reports of Russian diplomatic representatives in France and other European countries. Some parts of the material in this book were first published in 1926 in Prof. B. Volgin's work The Paris Commune as Described in Reports of the Russian Ambassador.

Researches carried out by Soviet historians on the subject of the Paris Commune are undoubtedly of international significance. This fact is recognized by leading foreign specialists. In 1930 the French periodical *Monde Slave* (Editor — Prof. Louis Eisenmann)

published an extensive review of Soviet works on the history of Western Europe, with a detailed analysis of books about the Paris Commune. Although taking issue with Soviet historians on certain points, the author of the review nevertheless recognized the great scientific significance of these Soviet researches.

In 1930 the American historian Edward Mason, professor of Harvard University, admitted in his interesting book *The Paris Commune* that Soviet historians had written a number of significant works on the history of the Commune, works with which the historians of other countries must reckon, even though they may not agree with the scientific and political analysis of the Commune given by Soviet historians.

VI.

Russian historians have produced fewer works on the history of France at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century. This is to be explained by the French ruling that documentary material may be put at the disposal of historians only after a lapse of fifty years from the date of the events concerned.

The domestic situation in France at the beginning of the Third Republic is considered in researches by two Leningrad historians: Prof. Dobrer in Plans for the Monarchial Revolution in France in the 1870's1, and Associate Professor V. Antonova in The Struggle of the Monarchists against the Government of Thiers and his Resignation (1871—1873). French foreign policy of this period forms the subject of Prof. A. Erusalimsky's study entitled The War Scare in 18752. This same author edited and wrote the preface to a volume of unpublished documents Franco-German crisis in 18753. These documents throw a new light on the position of Russia and England, which at that time prevented Bismarck from carrying out his plans of aggression against France. Interest in the international events of 1875 was aroused in the U.S.S.R. by another work on this same subject, an article by Prof. N. Poletika, published in 1940^{4} .

² Scientific Transactions of the Institute of History, Vol. VI, Moscow, 1928.

³ Krasny Arkhiv, Vol. 6/91, 1938, pp. 106—149.

¹ Arkhiv Karla Marksa i F. Engelsa. Book 3, 7-34.

 $^{^{1}}$ Izvestiya Leningradskovo Pedagogicheskovo Instituta, 1929.

⁴ Uchenye Zapiski Leningradskovo Instituta Usovershenstvovaniya Uchitelei, Vol. I, 1941.

Mention must also be made of numerous interesting researches by Moscow historians on the working class and socialist movement in France at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th centuries — T. Militsvna's book The Struggle of Tendencies in the French Syndicalist Movement (Moscow, 1937), and her article Allemagnistes1, E. Bernstein's article The Possibilities2, and S. Kunisky's essay Jaures as Historian3.

A work of primary scientific significance in the study of French foreign policy on the eve of and during World War I is the Soviet publication of documents of the tsarist and Provisional governments under the title of International Relations during the Imperialist Epoch, 1878-1918. This work was compiled for the press by a special commission consisting of Academician E. Rotstein and Profs. E. Erusalimsky and A. Mogilevich. Fourteen volumes have been printed up to date. These publications are used by historians all over the world. Another work of similar nature is the Collected Volume of Secret Diplomatic Documents of the Former Imperial Russian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, published by the Commissariat for Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R. in 1922 under the title Material on the History of Franco-Russian Relations from 1910 to 1914. The numerous diplomatic documents included in this volume tend to throw a new light on the relations between these two governments in the years preceding World War I. The same may be said of the texts containing the protocols of meetings between head of the Russian and French Army Staffs in 1911, 1912 and 1913, published as a supplement to this work.

Several original researches by Soviet historians on the history of World War I deal particularly with France. These include a monograph by M. Galaktionov (now Major General) entitled The Tempo of the Paris Operations, 1914 (Part I, 1937) and The Battle of the Marne (1938) by the same author. A long article called The Four Years' War. written by several authors in collaboration for the Granat Encyclopedia (Vols. 46-47), contains interesting and well selected material on French history from 1914 to 1918.

Considerable material on French foreign

¹ Socialisticheskoye Dvizheniye vo Frantsii, Moscow, 1933.

policy from the end of the 19th century to 1918 is to be found in Tarle's book Europe during the Imperialist Epoch (first edition — 1927, second edition — 1929). French foreign policy before World War I is treated in Prof. Poletika's Origins of World War I (1935), written on the basis of documentary material. Mention must also be made of an interesting essay by Prof. F. Notovich entitled On the Instigators of World War I1, French foreign policy in the two decades between World War I and World War II is dealt with in this author's book International Relations in the Period between World War I and World War II (1943).

E. Tarle takes up the problem of French foreign policy in the first years after the Treaty of Versailles in an interesting essay

published in 19242.

Well selected and splendidly presented material on the defeatist and anti-Soviet policy of French reactionary circles from 1933 to 1939, a policy which led to her isolation and defeat in 1940, is to be found in Acad. Po-

temkin's essays published in 1943³.

A. Schneerson's interesting book Financial Capital in France (1937) contains an analysis of the economic development of France after the end of the 19th century, with particular emphasis on the most recent period. This work gives a very graphic picture of French plutocracy and the oligarchy of the "two hundred families" which helped to bring about the ruin of France in our time.

VII.

A review of the principal works by Russian historians on the history of modern France and of the numerous publications of important source materials on the history of France in the 18th, 19th, and 20th centuries4 shows

1 Istorik-Marksist, No. 4, 1938.

Annals, No. 4, 1924.

³ Voyna i Rabochii Klass, Nos. 8, 9, 11; 1943. These articles were later published as a separate pamphlet.

³ Istorik-Marksist, Nos. 2, 3 and 4. 1927.

⁴ Numerous popular books, pamphlets and essays on 18th, 19th and 20th century France, published at various times by Russian historians and journalists (a particularly large number of such works have appeared in the Soviet period) have not been included in this bibliography inasmuch as they do not possess significance as independent researches. This bibliography does not include, also, textbooks and other aids for secondary and higher schools containing considerable factual material on the history of France. This review is limited to fundamental researches and important publications of source materials.

that Russian scientists specializing in modern French history have made significant contributions to world historical literature. This summary also shows that certain very important subjects of French history during the last two and three hundred years have been subjected to more complete and more profound research in the U.S.S.R. than in France itself. Such subjects are: French agrarian relations in the 18th century, the history of social ideas during the period of the French Revolution, the history of the working class and the working class movement in the 19th century, the history of the Paris Commune.

Two factors explain this. One is the growing interest of Russian scientists in the history of France — the country which was the main seat of democratic ideas in 18th and 19th century Europe. The other was the

extremely favourable conditions created for research work in our country after the victory of the Soviet Revolution.

The present bibliography lays no claim to being complete. Its purpose has been to indicate only the most fundamental researches and most important publications of source material and also the main schools of Russian historical thought. The vast scope of the subject and the limits of a magazine article make it impossible to present a critical analysis of any of the works mentioned. The present article notes only the positive results, the achievements of Soviet historians. A more inclusive and critical analysis would have required a series of articles, giving a detailed analysis of each research work or at least of each group of research workers. This has been done in part by our historians, the rest still remains to be done.

VOKS CHRONICLE

Dr. EDUARD BENES ENTERTAINED IN VOKS

V. Kemenov, President of the Board of VOKS, held a reception on March 26 in honour of Dr. Eduard Benes, President of the Czechoslovak Republic.

Among those present at the reception were Dr. Benes and Mrs. Benes, Mr. Jan Masaryk, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Czechoslovak Republic, Mr. V. Srobar, President of the National Council of Slovakia, Messrs. J. Stransky, J. Lichner, J. Becko and V. Mayer, Mr. Z. Fierlinger, Czechoslovak Ambassador to the U. S. S. R., Messrs. K. Gottwald, D. Konetsky and R. Slansky, members of the Prague Parliament, General G. Pika, Chief of the Czechoslovak Military Mission in the U. S. S. R., Prof. Nejedly and others accompanying Dr. Benes, members of the Czechoslovak Embassy in the U. S. S. R.

The Soviet people present at the reception included A. Vishinsky, V. Dekanozov, M. Litvinov and I. Maisky, Deputy People's Commissars of Foreign Affairs, A. Gorkin, Secretary of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U. S. S. R., V. Zorin, Soviet Ambassador to Czechoslovakia, G. Miterey, People's Commissar of Health, Colonel General F. Golikov,

Lieutenant General K. Sinilov, Major General M. Kutuzov, I. Bolshakov, Chairman of the Government Committee on Cinematography, Kaftanov, Chairman of the Government Committee on Higher Schools, S. Kolesnikov, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Red Cross and Red Crescent, N. Palgunov of Tass and many prominent writers, scientists, actors, musicians and artists among whom were A. Gerasimov, R. Glière, S. Marshak, Prof. V. Picheta, V. Pudovkin, T. Makarova, Academician N. Tsitsin, A. Khachaturyan, V. Maretskaya and Academician B. Grekov.

A concert was given at the reception. Among those taking part in the concert were the Beethoven Quartet consisting of Dmitri Tsyganov, Vasili Shirinsky, Vadim Borisovsky, and Serge Shirinsky, Tamara Yanko, People's Artiste of the R. S. F. S. R. Maria Maksakova, Prof. D. Oistrakh, Lev Oborin, Rina Zelenaya and People's Artist of the U. S. S. R. Maxim Mikhailov.

The reception was marked by a cordial and friendly atmosphere.

EXHIBITION OF PREFABRICATED HOUSING IN THE UNITED STATES

An exhibition of prefabricated housing in the United States was held in the Moscow Architects Club from March 15 to March 30. The exhibition was arranged by the U. S. S. R. Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries and the Union of Soviet Architects. The material displayed at the Exhibition was sent by the Architects' Committee of the National Council of American Soviet Friendship and the O. W. I. The exhibits were prepared by the Museum of Modern Art in New York.

Members of the diplomatic corps in Moscow, representatives of foreign military missions, foreign and Soviet newspaper correspondents and prominent Soviet people were present at the opening of the Exhibition.

Brief speeches were made by V. Kemenov, President of the Board of VOKS, Academician K. Alabyan, Chairman of the VOKS Architecture Section and Mr. A. Harriman, the American Ambassador to the U. S. S. R. The hall was decorated with Soviet and American flags.

The material displayed at the exhibition acquainted visitors with the newest methods of housing construction in the United States. The exhibition attracted a great deal of attention and was viewed by several thousands of people. Research workers of the Academy of Architecture acted as guides to groups of students from Building Engineering, Architecture and Art Institutes. Architects, building engineers, and students had an opportunity to study wartime housing construction and prefabricated housing in the United States. Samples of building materials used in the United States were shown at the Exhibition. The displays also included the latest literature on prefabricated housing.

Soviet building engineers all agreed that the Exhibition was very timely. It met an acute need felt in the tremendous rehabilitation program in war damaged areas, in the housing construction required for

the tens of millions people rendered homeless by the

The assembling of prefabricated houses on the building site, questions of standardization of certain details and of whole buildings, decorative and insulation materials used in factory construction are all problems of vital interest to Soviet building engineers.

Particular interest was attracted by the use of steel and reinforced concrete in large-scale housing construction. One of the most interesting things brought out at the Exhibition was the application to housing construction of methods used in aircraft and automobile engineering. It was of course impossible to present a complete picture of housing construction in the United States within the limits of a single exhibition.

"This is all very interesting and instructive but we should like to know more about the subject", was the comment of one of the students in the Visitors' Book. This opinion was shared by most of the people visiting the exhibition. Despite the relatively limited scope of the Exhibition, it did demonstrate the tremendous advantage of organizing housing construction on the principle of large scale prefabricated production.

"The Exhibition can teach us a great deal", wrote engineer Latvinov in the Visitors' Book. "It stimulates our creative thought to seek out new means of solving the problem of large scale, inexpensive housing construction."

Academician Colley wrote the following entry in the Visitors' Book, "This Exhibition is of tremendous practical significance. It graphically demonstrates the possibilities which new types of construction and new materials offer the architect."

"I welcome this very interesting Exhibition as the first step in the great work of rehabilitating peacetime housing construction all over the world", wrote Professor I. Bondarenko.